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ART. I. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa*, in the Years 1797 and 1798: including cursory Observations on the Geology and Geography of the Southern Part of that Continent; the natural History of such Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms; and Sketches of the physical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants surrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. To which is annexed, a Description of the present State, Population, and Produce of that extensive Colony; with a Map constructed entirely from actual Observations made in the Course of the Travels. By John Barrow, late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and Auditor-General of the Public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. pp. 420. 1 l. 10 s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

ALTHOUGH it were almost hopeless to attempt to imitate the magnificent manner in which Johnson enumerates the faculties and accomplishments requisite to form a *Poet*, it would be easy, on his plan, to make a most discouraging catalogue of the bodily and mental qualifications which a *Traveller* ought to possess, or which would be advantageous to him: since, in addition to mental acuteness, judgment, discrimination, equanimity, patience, and the perfection of the corporeal powers, what part of human science or learning can be pronounced useless, or may not be called into exercise by particular exigences and circumstances? Ostentatious learning, or affected scrupulosity, or the daintiness of inordinate refinement, might thus indeed demand that a traveller should be endowed as never man was nor will be endowed: but, as the circle of virtues and attainments, within which individual excellence must ever be confined, is of no vast extent, we must expect to meet perpetually with things far beneath perfection; and we have reason for rejoicing when productions which are above mediocrity occur.

Leaving, however, the field of unsatisfactory speculation, many parts of learning and science may confidently be pronounced to be useless to a traveller whose purposes and destina-

tion are marked by certain circumstances; or, with greater propriety, we may affirm that in different undertakings different qualities are necessary. The hardihood, the patience, and the perseverance, which bore a man through barbarous nations to the banks of the Niger, might be superfluous to the wealthy traveller who visits a civilized country, in order to inspect its arts and manufactures, and to observe the genius, temper, habits, and manners of its inhabitants;—the natural philosopher who ascends Etna, and the classical enthusiast who visits the Troad, have distinct objects to accomplish by appropriate acquirements;—and the science, which instructed the astronomer on Mount Schehallian to verify the principle of gravitation, would be unprofitable to him who traces the vestiges of departed magnificence, or ponders over the monuments of antient art.

The author of the travels recorded in the volume before us may, or may not, be gifted with many more accomplishments than those to which his work gives testimony: but certainly the qualities necessary for an undertaking like that in which he engaged, and for the subsequent description and narration of its result, he seems in a very eminent manner to possess. He has not only informed us what are the general appearances and nature of the country, what plants are produced, and what are the dispositions and customs of the inhabitants, but he has viewed the regions under his inspection with the eye of a politician, and has inquired what new productions in the animal and vegetable kingdoms may be advantageously introduced; he has pointed out the spots proper for watering places; and the bays of good anchorage; and with the feelings and views of enlightened humanity, he has reprobated the cruel treatment of the Hottentots, and suggested means for bettering their condition.

The first chapter of the work is introduced by an extract from the Records of the East India Company, respecting the act of taking possession of the Cape of Good Hope in the year 1620.—The subsequent history of the colony, under the Dutch Government, is next briefly related. While the Cape remained in the hands of these its old masters, scarcely any thing was done towards ascertaining the geography of the country: the only travellers, whose sole view was to acquire useful information, having been the Governor Van Plettenberg and Colonel Gordon; who fixed the eastern boundaries of the colony on the spot as they now stand. The settlement, however, being captured by the English in 1796, it was the object of the several expeditions performed by Mr. Barrow, to complete the line of demarcation through the heart of the country, to the western shore. The journies were made in the years

1797

1797 and 1798; and they supplied materials for a chart executed by the orders of the Earl of Macartney, and which is prefixed to Mr. Barrow's publication. This chart was constructed entirely from actual observations of latitude and of bearings, from the estimation of distances, and from frequent angular intersections of remarkable objects:

'From this chart (says the author) it appears that the extent and dimensions of the territory composing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

'Length from west to east.

Cape Point to Kaffer Land, - - -	580 miles.
River Koussie to Zuureberg, - -	520 ——

Breadth from south to north.

River Koussie to Cape Point, - -	315 ——
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay, -	160 ——
Mouth of the Tush-river to Plettenberg's baaken,	225 ——

which gives a parallelogram whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233, English miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants, so that each individual might possess eight and a half square miles of ground. A very great portion, however, of this territory may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with chrystallized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent-plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or cloathed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape. These chains of mountains and the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of east and west, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at False Bay, opposite to the Cape Point, stretches to the northward along the western coast as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 210 miles.'

The territory comprehended under the name of the *Cape of Good Hope* is divided into four districts; over each of which presides a *Landrost*, who, with a council of six country burghers, regulates the police, superintends the government, and determines petty causes: but his decisions are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in *Cape Town*, the metropolis of the settlement.

The usual places of resort for ships trading to the Cape are False Bay and Table Bay, the one washing the southern and the other the northern shore of the Isthmus. There are also two small bays on the west side of the Peninsula, one called Hout or Wood Bay, and the other Chapman's Bay:

'All these bays, (says Mr. Barrow) the passes of the mountains, and indeed every part of the peninsula, are capable of being maintained, if properly garrisoned, against any attack that will probably be ever made against them. Most of the works, batteries, and lines, have undergone a complete repair, with many improvements; and others have been judiciously added, by the British engineers. The pass at the foot of Müisenberg, a steep high mountain, washed by False Bay, and the only road of communication between Simon's Bay and the Cape, may now be considered as impregnable, though the Dutch suffered themselves very easily to be driven out of it. It is the Thermopylæ of the Cape; and from the several breast-works, lately constructed along the heights, a *chosen band* of three hundred rifle men ought to stop the progress of an army.'

Timber of all kinds for building is very rare at the Cape, yet little pains have been taken to cultivate it near the town. In parts of the country not far distant, plantations of oak trees, of the white poplar, and of the stone pine, are to be found, and thrive rapidly: but their timber is generally unsound. The article of fuel is so scarce at Cape Town, that a small cart load composed of the branches of the silver tree, of the larger heaths, &c. sells from twenty to eight-and-twenty shillings. A slave is usually kept in families for the sole purpose of collecting fire-wood; and the annual expence in a moderate family, for faggots for the kitchen-fire, (the only one in the house) is nearly fifty-pounds. To remedy this evil, Lord Macartney ordered a search to be made for fossil coal; and the operation of boring was begun on a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain: but it was soon discontinued, on the discovery of actual coal *coming out to day*, along the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out of the Tygerberg Hill. The coal already found is at the depth of two feet: but, when Mr. Barrow wrote his account, the borer had been put down in several places in hopes of meeting with the main bed, without success.

Though the inhabitants of the Cape Town suffer the inconvenience of scarcity of fuel, they enjoy several natural advantages; and their market is supplied with abundance of sea fish, with fruits, and with vegetables. Some of their vineyards are of sufficient extent to produce, besides the supply of the market with grapes and prepared raisins, about 100,000 gallons of wine annually.

The Botanist may find an ample field of investigation in the Cape district. Its vegetable productions, Mr. Barrow says, (and he is good authority, since he appears to be himself a cultivator of natural history) are more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world; and of the frutescent or shrubby plants, there is likewise great abund-

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ance. To zoologists, the animals of the Cape afford a more contracted scope.

Insects of every description abound during the summer months: musquitoes are less troublesome than in most warm climates: but a small sand fly, almost invisible, is the cause of great torment.—Almost all the snakes of the country are venomous.—The fatal diseases, which prevail among the natives, Mr. B. attributes to their habits of life, rather than to the climate; in support of which opinion, he remarks that the English troops enjoy uncommonly good health in this colony.

The Malay slaves are said to be active and docile, faithful and honest, but dangerous on account of their impetuosity and vengeful temper. Mr. B. relates an instance of refinement of revenge in one of these people, which we can scarcely credit: perhaps the story has lost much of its original truth, and has gained some false embellishments. It is thus told:

'A Malay conceiving that he not only had served his master sufficiently long, and with great fidelity, but had also paid him several sums of money, he was tempted to demand his liberty, and met with a refusal. The following morning the Malay murdered his fellow-slave. On being taken and brought up for examination before a commission of the Court of Justice, he acknowleged that the boy he had murdered was his friend; but he had considered that the most effectual way to be revenged of his master was, not by taking away his life, but by robbing him of the value of a thousand rix-dollars, by the loss of the boy, and another thousand by bringing himself, in so doing, to the gallows; the recollection of which would prey upon his avaricious mind for the remainder of his life.'

Of the inhabitants of the Cape, and of their situation under the English Government, Mr. Barrow thus writes:

'The education of youth has hitherto been very much neglected. The government never hit upon any successful plan for the establishment of public schools; and the individual had no other ambition but that of qualifying his sons, by writing and accounts, to become servants of the Company. This body of merchants had a number of persons in their employ who were very ill paid. Their salaries indeed were insufficient to afford them a bare subsistence; but it tacitly allowed them to negociate for themselves. The consequence of such a conduct was, that each became a kind of petty dealer. Each had his little private shop in some corner of his house. The most paltry articles were in the list of their commodities for sale; and those who ranked high in the government, and assumed a string of full-sounding epithets to their names, felt no sort of indignity in retailing the produce of their gardens; not indeed avowedly, but through the medium of their slaves. In fact, the minds of every class, the governor, the clergy, the fiscal, and the secretary of the court of justice excepted, were wholly bent on trade. *Koopman* or merchant was a title that conferred rank at the Cape, to which the

military even aspired. On this subject the ideas of the Dutch differ widely from those of the Chinese, who have degraded the merchant into the very lowest order of their society.

'That portion of the day, not employed in the concerns of trade, is usually devoted to the gratification of the sensual appetites. Few have any taste for reading, and none for the cultivation of the fine arts. They have no kind of public amusements except occasional balls; nor is there much social intercourse but by family parties, which usually consist of card-playing or dancing. Money-matters and merchandise engross their whole conversation. Yet none are opulent, though many in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony; and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The subsistence for these is derived from the interest of a fund established out of the church superfluities, from alms, donations, and collections made after divine service, and not from any tax laid upon the public. Except, indeed, a few colonial assessments for the repairs of the streets and public works, the inhabitants of the Cape have little drawback on their profits or the produce of their labour.'—

'It has been the remark of most travellers that the ladies of the Cape are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which is a principal trait in the national character of the Dutch. The difference in the manners and appearance of the young men and the young women, in the same family, is inconceivably great. The former are clumsy in their shape, awkward in their carriage, and of an unsociable disposition; whilst the latter are generally of a small delicate form, below the middle size, of easy and unaffected manners, well dressed, and fond of social intercourse, an indulgence in which they are seldom restrained by their parents, and which they as seldom turn to abuse. They are here indeed less dependant on, and less subject to, the caprice of parents than elsewhere. Primogeniture entitles to no advantages; but all the children, male and female, share alike in the family property. No parent can disinherit a child without assigning, on proof, one at least of the fourteen reasons enumerated in the Justinian Code. By the law of the colony, a community of all property, both real and personal, is supposed to take place on the marriage of two persons, unless the contrary should be particularly provided against by solemn contract made before marriage. Where no such contract exists, the children, on the death of either parent, are entitled to that half of the joint property which was supposed to belong to the deceased, and which cannot be withheld on application after they are come of age.

'It is but justice to the young females of the Cape to remark, that many of them have profited much more than could be expected from the limited means of education that the place affords. In the better families, most of them are taught music, and some have acquired a tolerable degree of execution. Many understand the French language, and some have made great proficiency in the English. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace, knotting, and tambour work, and in general make up their own dresses, following the prevailing

prevailing fashions of England brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India, from whom they may be said to

"Catch the manners living as they rise."

'Neither are the other sex, while boys, deficient in vivacity or talent; but for want of the means of a proper education, to open their minds and excite in them a desire of knowledge, they soon degenerate into the common routine of eating, smoaking, and sleeping. Few of the male inhabitants associate with the English, except such as hold employments under the government. This backwardness may be owing in part to the different habits of the two nations, and partly, perhaps, to the reluctance that a vanquished people must always feel in mixing with their conquerors. No real cause, however, of complaint or disaffection could possibly be alleged against the English government at the Cape. No new taxes have been imposed since the conquest; but, on the contrary, some of the old ones have been diminished, and others modified. The demand and value of every production of the colony have very considerably increased, while the articles of import have fallen, in their prices. More than 200,000 rixdollars of arrears in rent of land have been remitted to the inhabitants by the British government, as well as 180,000 rixdollars of dubious debts. They have preserved their laws and their religion, both of which continue to be administered by their own people. They enjoy as great a share of rational liberty as men, bound to each other, and to the whole, by the ties that a state of society necessarily imposes, could possibly expect, and much greater than under their former government. Property has been secure in every instance, and has been raised to double its former value: and none has the loss of life of any friend or relation to lament at the time of, or since, the capture. Their paper currency, fabricated by the government in order to get over a temporary distress, but which it had never been able to take out of circulation, bore a depreciation of 40 *per cent.* and a silver dollar was scarcely to be seen. The former is now at par with specie, and not less than two millions of the latter have been sent from England and thrown into circulation. Every person enjoys his share of the general prosperity. The proprietor of houses in town has more than doubled his rent; and the farmer in the country, where formerly he received a rixdollar for each of his sheep, now receives three. Four years of increasing prosperity, of uninterruped peace and domestic tranquillity, have been the happy lot of the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope.'

In chapter II. Mr. B. relates his journey from the Cape across the Karroo, or Arid Desert, to the Drosdy of Graaff Reynet. This excursion was made in the month of July: the author proceeding with covered waggons drawn by bullocks, who travel at the rate of three miles in an hour for eleven or twelve hours unremittingly. The journeys at the Cape are in general performed in the night, in order that during the day the oxen may brouse among the shrubbery, which is their common food;

since, in the dry season, the ground does not produce a single blade of grass.—After a description of the nature and productions of the country lying between Cape Town and the entrance of the Karoo, which is too interesting to be abridged, and too long to be inserted here, Mr. Barrow gives the following account of the Farmer of the Country, the Dutch Peasant, or Boor:

'A true Dutch peasant, or boor as he styles himself, has not the smallest idea of what an English farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the necessaries, but almost every luxury of life might by industry be procured, he has the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance, he makes very little use of milk or of butter. In the midst of a soil and climate most favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes use of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a-day his table is loaded with masses of mutton, swimming in the grease of the sheep's tail. His house is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable shelter for scorpions and spiders; and the earthy floors are covered with dust and dirt, and swarm with insects, particularly with a species of the *termes*, which, though not so destructive as some others of this genus, is nevertheless a very troublesome and disagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the case among the grazing farmers, are nearly destitute of furniture. A great chest that contains all his moveables, and two smaller ones that are fitted to his waggon, are the most striking articles. The bottoms of his chairs consist of thongs cut from a bullock's hide. The windows are without glass; or if there should happen to be any remains of this article, it is so patched and daubed as nearly to exclude the light it was intended to admit. The boor notwithstanding has his enjoyments: he is absolute master of a domain of several miles in extent; and he lords it over a few miserable slaves or Hottentots without controul. His pipe scarcely ever quits his mouth, from the moment he rises till he retires to rest, except to give him time to swallow his *sopie*, or a glass of strong ardent spirit, to eat his meals, and to take his nap after dinner. Unwilling to work, and unable to think; with a mind disengaged from every sort of care and reflexion, indulging to excess in the gratification of every sensual appetite, the African peasant grows to an unweildy size, and is carried off the stage by the first inflammatory disease that attacks him.

'How different is the lot of the laboring poor of England, who for six days in the week are doomed to toil for twelve hours in every day, in order to gain a morsel of bread for their family, and the luxury of a little animal food for the seventh day!'

We are next presented with a description of the women of the African peasantry; who, in listless inactivity, "sleep along the blank of life," exciting no love, interchanging no affections, harbouring no sympathies, but alike insensible to the sedate pleasures of social intercourse, and to the tumultuous

tuous exhilarations of public festivals.—Yet, rude and ignorant as the peasantry are, the virtues of hospitality are cultivated by them to excess; and all travellers are equally welcome to the best food and accommodation which their means can supply.

Mr. Barrow and his company waited in the Hex-river Valley two days, principally for the arrival of two farmers who, besides their knowlege of the places at which water was to be found in the Karoo, were necessary to strengthen the party against the attacks of the savage Hottentots, or Bosjesmans.

'To oppose these Bosjesmans, (says Mr. B.) the farmers generally cross the desart in parties, and strongly armed. The poor savage, driven by imperious want to carry off an ox or sheep to his starving family, who have no other abode than the caverns of the mountains, often pays in the attempt the forfeit of his life; but it rarely happens that any of the colonists fall by his hands. Yet the name of Bosjesman is held in horror and detestation; and a farmer thinks he cannot proclaim a more meritorious action than the murder of one of these people. A boor from Graaff Reynet being asked in the secretary's office, a few days before we left the town, if the savages were numerous or troublesome on the road, replied, he had only shot four, with as much composure and indifference as if he had been speaking of four partridges. I myself have heard one of the humane colonists boast of having destroyed with his own hands near three hundred of these unfortunate wretches.'

Mr. B. then describes the journey across the desart; and, on the occasion of meeting with a species of salsola or saltwort, from the ashes of which the Hottentots make their soap, he observes:

'These ashes, when carefully burnt and collected, are a pure white caustic alkali, a solution of which, mixed up with the oily fat of the large broad tails of the sheep of the colony, and boiled slowly for five or six days, takes the consistency and the quality of an excellent white soap. This salsola grows in almost every part of Southern Africa, but particularly on those plains known by the name of Karroo, and in such abundance that, supposing the plant, after being cut down and burnt, to be reproduced in five years, the quantity of soda, or barrilla, that might annually be made from the ashes, would be sufficient, beside serving the colony, for the whole consumption of Great Britain: and as enormous sums of money have always been, and continue to be, drawn from England to pay the imports of this article, it may perhaps be considered as an object worthy of further inquiry.'

Among the hills surrounding the plain of Geel-beck, our traveller saw a small herd of Zebras, and of Quachas (wild horses). The latter are easily made docile; and Mr. B. suggests that the former might also be rendered tractable under any other management than that of the indolent, stupid, and barbarous Dutch peasant.

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On many parts of the great desart, Ostriches were seen. This animal, Mr. B. observes, is polygamous; and from ignorance of this circumstance, an error has slipt into the *Systema Naturæ*, in which it is said that one female lays fifty eggs: but the fact is that the different females belonging to one male deposit their eggs in the same nest.

We now arrive at the IIId Chapter, intitled '*Sketches on a journey into the country of the Kaffers.*' On the evening of the 30th day of his travels, Mr. Barrow reached Graaff Reynet, the residence of the Landrost; whose power and importance will not excite much envy, when the following description of the village, in which he holds his state, is read:

'The village is chiefly inhabited by mechanics, and such as hold some petty employment under the Landrost. Its appearance is more miserable than that of the poorest village in England. The necessaries of life are with difficulty procured in it; for, though there be plenty of land, few are found industrious enough to cultivate it. No milk, no butter, no cheese, no vegetables of any kind, are to be had upon any terms. There is no butcher, no chandler, no grocer, no baker. Every one must provide for himself as well as he can. They have neither wine nor beer; and the chief beverage of the inhabitants is the water of the Sunday river, which, in the summer season, is strongly impregnated with salt.'

When the Landrost, who accompanied Mr. Barrow, came to the Drosdy, (or residence,) a long list of grievances was presented, relative to the incursions of the tribe of people called Kaffers. Previously to the arrival of the Landrost, the farmers, actuated chiefly by the hope of plunder, had prepared to carry war into the country of the Kaffers: but, very humanely and politically, these preparations were stopped; and 'it was resolved to inquire into the affair of the Kaffers upon the spot where they had posted themselves in the greatest numbers; and, should it be found necessary, to proceed from thence to the residence of their king; at the same time to pass through and examine as many parts of the country, under the jurisdiction of Graaff Reynet, as could be done without too great an expenditure of time; and particularly to visit the bay that was said to be formed where the *Zwart-kops* river falls into the sea.'

This journey commenced on the 11th of August; and, on the evening of the 17th, the party encamped on the verdant bank of a salt water lake, to which the inhabitants resort in order to procure salt. It is situated on a plain of considerable extent, elevated above the level of the sea; and the greatest part of the bottom of the lake is covered with one continued body of salt, like a sheet of ice, the chrystals of which were so united as to form a solid mass, hard as rock.

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On the evening of the 18th, Mr. B. arrived at Zwart-kops, or Algoa bay, situated in latitude 33°.56′ South, longitude 26°.53′ East of Greenwich, and distant from the Cape in a direct line 500 miles. He is of opinion that, from the vicinity of this place to the salt pans, from the ease of procuring bullocks in good condition, and from the abundance of excellent fish on the coast, great benefits would accrue to the East India Company, if an establishment were formed for the preparation of salted beef and fish.

In the valley through which the Zwart-kops river flows, the author found a species of antelope, or goat, called the *Riet-Bok*, or red goat, hitherto undescribed by naturalists.

Mr. B.'s account of the Hottentots is too interesting, and too creditable to the writer, to be wholly omitted:

'Twenty years ago, if we may credit the travellers of that day, the country beyond Camtoos river, which was then the eastern limit of the colony, abounded with kraals or villages of Hottentots, out of which the inhabitants came to meet them by hundreds in a groupe. Some of these villages might still have been expected to remain in this remote and not very populous part of the colony. Not one, however, was to be found. There is not in the whole extensive district of Graaff Reynet a single horde of independent Hottentots; and perhaps not a score of individuals who are not actually in the service of the Dutch. These weak people, the most helpless, and in their present condition perhaps the most wretched, of the human race, duped out of their possessions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miserable offspring a state of existence to which that of slavery might bear the comparison of happiness. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote posterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceased person of little note. Their numbers of late years have rapidly declined. It has generally been observed that wherever Europeans have colonized, the less civilized natives have always dwindled away, and at length totally disappeared. Various causes have contributed to the depopulation of the Hottentots. The impolitic custom of hording together in families, and of not marrying out of their own kraals, has no doubt tended to enervate this race of men, and reduced them to their present degenerated condition, which is that of a languid, listless, phlegmatic people, in whom the prolific powers of nature seem to be almost exhausted. To this may be added their extreme poverty, scantiness of food, and continual dejection of mind, arising from the cruel treatment they receive from an inhuman and unfeeling peasantry, who having discovered themselves to be removed to too great a distance from the seat of their former government to be awed by its authority, have exercised, in the most wanton and barbarous manner, an absolute power over these poor wretches reduced to the necessity of depending upon them for a morsel of bread. There is scarcely an instance of cruelty said to have been committed against the slaves in the West-India

India islands, that could not find a parallel from the Dutch farmers of the remote parts of the colony towards the Hottentots in their service. Beating and cutting them with thongs of the hide of the sea-cow or rhinosceros, is a gentle punishment, though these sort of whips which they call *shambos* are most horrid instruments, tough, pliant, and heavy almost as lead. Firing small shot into the legs and thighs of a Hottentot is a punishment not unknown to some of the monsters who inhabit the neighbourhood of Camtoos river. Instant death is not unfrequently the consequence of punishing these poor wretches in a moment of rage. This is of little consequence to the farmer; for though they are to all intents and purposes his slaves, yet they are not transferable property. It is this circumstance which, in his mind, makes their lives less valuable and their treatment more inhuman.

'In offences of too small moment to stir up the phlegm of a Dutch peasant, the coolness and tranquillity displayed at the punishment of his slave or Hottentot is highly ridiculous, and at the same time indicative of a savage disposition to unfeeling cruelty lurking in his heart. He flogs them, not by any given number of lashes, but by time; and as they have no clocks nor substitutes for them capable of marking the smaller divisions of time, he has invented an excuse for the indulgence of one of his most favourite sensualities, by flogging them till he has smoked as many pipes of tobacco as he may judge the magnitude of the crime to deserve. The government of Malacca, according to the manuscript journal of an intelligent officer in the expedition against that settlement, has adopted the same custom of *flogging by pipes*; and the fiscal or chief magistrate, or some of his deputies, are the smokers on such occasions.'

The rest of the account is particular and curious, but want of room obliges us to omit many passages—Mr. B. suggests that the Hottentot custom of greasing the body is founded on a rational principle; viz. that of preventing the skin from being shrivelled and parched by the scorching rays of the sun.

After our traveller had finished his observations on Zwartkops bay and the adjacent country, he and his party proceeded along the sea-coast into the country of the Kaffers. Having crossed the rivers Bosjesmans and Hassagai-bosch, they fell in with the first party of Kaffers, on the banks of the Kareeka; and their meeting was welcomed by the Kaffer women, who laughed and danced about them. No contrast can be stronger than that which subsists between the indolent, phlegmatic Hottentot, and the active, animated Kaffer.—The women of the latter people are of low stature, very strong limbed, and particularly muscular in the leg.

'The men (says Mr. Barrow) were the finest figures I ever beheld: they were tall, robust, and muscular; their habits of life had induced a firmness of carriage, and an open, manly manner, which, added

added to the good nature that overspread their features, shewed them at once to be equally unconscious of fear, suspicion, and treachery. A young man about twenty, of six feet ten inches high, (qu?) was one of the finest figures that perhaps was ever created. He was a perfect Hercules; and a cast from his body would not have disgraced the pedestal of that deity in the Farnese palace. Many of them had indeed very much the appearance of bronze figures.'

On the 2d of September, the travellers left the first party of the Kaffers, in order to proceed towards the residence of the king Gaika. On the occasion of passing a dangerous and difficult defile, Mr. Barrow relates an instance of the most atrocious inhumanity, towards the exhausted oxen of one of the teams: but this, unfortunately, is no solitary record of brutality. Even in the neighbourhood of the Cape, the feelings of humanity would be continually irritated by acts of cruelty. We hope, however, that the representations of Mr. Barrow will tend to direct the attention of the English rulers, to the sufferings of innocent and useful animals, in these uncivilized regions.

After having visited the mouth of the great fish river, Mr. B. and his companions arrived at the residence of the king of the Kaffers, who readily concluded a treaty with the representatives of the English government. Mr. B. gives the articles of the treaty, and then adds an account of the Kaffers; which is ample, interesting, and demonstrative of the happiness of their state.—Our narrow limits prevent us from giving any extracts from this part of the work; and we do not choose to mar the description by abridgment. One fact, however, which is soon related, we shall notice; viz. that the Kaffers expose their dead to wild beasts. The feelings of the relations of the deceased are not shocked by this custom; and the body is almost immediately dragged into dens by wolves: on which account, the life of the wolf is held sacred by a Kaffer.

All business with the Kaffer king having been transacted, the party proceeded to examine the mouth of the river Keiskamma: which is here nearly as wide as the Thames at Woolwich, and apparently of great depth: but the entrance is guarded by a bar of sand, on which the surf breaks with great violence. From the Keiskamma, the travellers returned by a new route to Graaff Reynet, which place they reached on the 30th September.

Mr. Barrow remained during three weeks at Graaff Reynet, and then undertook another expedition to the Northward, across the Sneuwberg, which is the subject of the IVth chapter. His object was to observe the nature and manners of the race of men called Bosjesmans, or men of the bushes, who

neither

neither cultivate the land nor breed cattle, but live by depredation; and to form small treaties of accommodation with them. Three days' journey carried the party into the plains which are within the Sneuwberg; and one of the retreats of the Bosjesmans (which retreats are in chasms formed by the torrents rushing down the sides of the high stratified mountains,) was soon discovered:

'The fires (says Mr. B.) were scarcely extinguished, and the grass on which they had slept was not yet withered. On the smooth sides of the cavern were drawings of several animals that had been made from time to time by these savages. Many of them were caricatures; but others were too well executed not to arrest attention. The different antelopes that were there delineated had each their character so well discriminated, that the originals, from whence the representations had been taken, could, without any difficulty, be ascertained. Among the numerous animals that were drawn, was the figure of a zebra remarkably well done; all the marks and characters of this animal were accurately represented, and the proportions were seemingly correct. The force and spirit of drawings, given to them by bold touches judiciously applied, and by the effect of light and shadow, could not be expected from savages; but for accuracy of outline and correctness of the different parts, worse drawings than that of the zebra have passed through the engraver's hands. The materials with which they had been executed were charcoal, pipe-clay, and the different ochres. The animals represented were zebras, qua-chas, gemsboks, springboks, reeboks, elands, baboons, and ostriches, all of which, except the gemsbok, are found upon the very spot.'

This skill of the Bosjesmans in drawing is a curious fact.—As these poor people know, from fatal experience, that the inroads of Europeans into their country are attended with plunder and murder, it is difficult to approach their hordes. The commandant of Mr. Barrow's party, however, having issued strict orders to preserve regularity and silence, a kraal of the Bosjesmans was surprized at day break; and, as positive injunctions had been given to the colonists to forego their ordinary practice, and not to fire except in a case of absolute necessity, only one Bosjesman was killed in the surprise. After a short time, a few of the horde descended from the hills, and conversed with the colonists. The nature of the conversation was conciliatory, and designed to impress the minds of the Bojesmans with the idea, that the custom of wantonly murdering and enslaving them was at an end.

These Bosjesmans, as Mr. B. has described them, are certainly an extraordinary race of men. The males do not exceed in stature the height of four feet nine inches; and the tallest of the females was only four feet four inches in height. They have flat noses, high cheek bones, prominent chins, and hollow visages:

visages: their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs are hollow: yet their activity is incredibly great. * Like other savages, they are extremely voracious: with them, it is either a feast or a famine: when successful in bringing home cattle from a plundering party, they slay them in such numbers, that the kraal soon becomes a mass of putrefaction; and flights of Vultures are seen hovering over it:

'The three Bosjesmans who accompanied us to our waggons, (says Mr. Barrow) had a sheep given to them about five in the evening, which was entirely consumed by them before the noon of the following day. They continued, however, to eat all night, without sleep and without intermission, till they had finished the whole animal. After this their lank bellies were distended to such a degree that they looked less like human creatures than before. Accustomed to food of a strong and pungent quality, simple water seemed to have no relish for them: they prepared a beverage that was excessively disgusting: having cut the throat of the sheep, they opened the belly to let the blood run among the entrails; then cutting these with a knife, and pouring in a quantity of water, they stirred up all together, and drank the nauseous mixture with an appetite that sufficiently shewed it to be suited to their taste.'

The travellers proceeded some way along the bank of the Sea-Cow river, and then came to its junction with a vast stream, called by Colonel Gordon the *Orange river*; which, in size and bulk of water, more than equals all the other rivers of the colony taken collectively; its general breadth at 500 miles distance from its mouth being 300 yards, when free from inundations; for, like the Nile, the Orange river has its periodical overflowings.

An object of considerable importance with Mr. Barrow was to ascertain the existence of the Unicorn. Many caverns were fruitlessly explored, with the hopes of finding the delineation of this animal among the drawings of the Bosjesmans: when, at length, in a high and concealed kloof, was discovered part of a figure intended as the representation of a beast with a single horn projecting from the forehead. Of this figure, as it was found on the sides of the cavern, Mr. B. has given a fac simile; and this delineation of an animal with a single horn affords some slight arguments for the existence of a living original. If the fac simile be faithful, it also bears strong evidence of the graphical skill of the Bosjesmans. On the probability of the existence of an Unicorn, Mr. B. enters into a discussion of four or five pages.

* Mr. Barrow relates and discusses some peculiarities of physical conformation among these people, similar to such as have been described in the Hottentots, which are not fit subjects for our pages. He controverts and (we think) refutes the opinion of a French traveller, that these appearances are the effects of art.

On the 24th day after their departure, the travellers returned to Graaff Reynet; and this period was marked by the circumstance of excessive heat: the thermometer, when exposed to the wind in the shade, standing at 108°.

Chapter V. Contains *Sketches on a Journey from Graaff Reynet along the Sea coast to the Cape.*—When the expedition arrived at Graaff Reynet, it was found that the passage of the great desert was impracticable, on account of the scarcity of water and herbage. At length, however, after a heavy and continued rain, the journey was attempted and effected, though under circumstances of great distress and danger. The rain had not extended far into the country; and, for four days, the travellers endured the mortification and hardship of finding springs and rivers completely dried up: but on the sixth day, fresh water was happily obtained in a stream called Keurfonteyn, or choice spring.

In the route from Graaff Reynet to the Cape, it is necessary to cross a chain of mountains; and the point of the passage is at a mountain emphatically called Duyvil's kop, or the Devil's head: for here the road is dreadfully steep and stoney, formed by steps over some of which it was necessary to lift the waggons by main strength:

'Just as we reached the summit, (says Mr. Barrow) the weather, which had been remarkably pleasant, the thermometer standing at 74°, now began to be overcast, the wind blew fresh, and shortly after an immense sheet of black vapor was observed to approach, borne upon the south-east wind from the sea. Ascending rapidly in rolling volumes, it completely immersed us upon the summit of the mountain. The temperature of the air was immediately decreased to 39° of Fahrenheit. Before our three waggons had got over the highest peak, the weather began to clear up, and it was then curious enough to observe that part of the country between the mountains and the sea involved in dense clouds, and deluged apparently with heavy rain, whilst the northern side of the same mountains enjoyed a sunshine unsullied by a single cloud.

'The instability of the climate of the southern angle of Africa, has frequently been noticed in the course of these sketches; yet a more remarkable instance of it had not perhaps occurred than in the present situation. An elevation of about one thousand feet, or little more, produced a variation of temperature, in the course of two hours, equal to thirty-five degrees. It afterwards appeared, that, on the same day, being the longest in the year, snow had fallen and lain for some time upon the same chain of mountains, close behind Zwellendam, where it is not particularly lofty.'

Having crossed the Crocodile river, the Gauritz river, (the sudden and copious rise of which is so extraordinary, as to have once destroyed a house nearly an hundred feet above the

level of its channel,) and various other streams, the travellers reached Cape Town on the 18th of January, after a tour of seven months' duration; in the course of which, says Mr. B. 'many personal inconveniences and difficulties had occurred, to be borne and surmounted only by a determination to gratify curiosity at the expence of comfort.'

Chapter VI. and last contains *Sketches on a Journey into the Country of the Namaaquas.*—This chapter, like its predecessors, contains much curious and interesting matter concerning the face of the country which was explored, its productions, &c. On the occasion of the author's Hottentot following, for a considerable distance, the traces of the waggon, he notes the sagacity of this race of people in *investigation*:

'At this sort of business a Hottentot is uncommonly clever. There is not an animal among the numbers that range the wilds of Africa, if he be at all acquainted with it, the print of whose feet he cannot distinguish. And though the marks by which his judgment is directed be very nice, they are constant in animals in a state of nature, whereas domesticated animals are liable to many accidental variations. He will distinguish the wolf for instance, from the domestic dog, by the largeness of the ball of the foot, and the comparative smallness of the toes. The print of any of his companions' feet, he would single out among a thousand. The peasantry are also tolerably expert in tracing game by the marks of their feet; it is, in fact, a part of their education. An African boor gains a sort of reputation by being clever *op het spoor.* This is the method by which, on moonlight nights, they hunt down the poor Bosjesmans.'

The Hartebeest river, contrary to expectation, being perfectly dry, 'the experiment of digging was made in the bed of the river, and at five feet under the pebbly and chrystallized sand, the fragments apparently of decomposed granite, was a stream of clear fresh water; and from various experiments afterwards made in the sandy beds of the rivers of the Namaaqua country, I am inclined to think, that subterranean streams of water pass under most of them in this part of Africa.'

On the second of June, after an absence of nearly eight weeks, Mr. B. returned to Cape Town; his journey having been performed in the most unfavourable season of the year, bút fortunately without those inconveniences which were naturally to be expected and dreaded.

The extracts which we have given from this publication are sufficient, perhaps, to incite rational curiosity to the perusal of the whole work, by affording satisfactory specimens of the ability with which subjects of interest and importance are discussed. Our quotations, however, are not to be deemed the most important parts; since those topics, which are most worthy of

attention, are treated at the greatest length, and of these ample discussions our limits preclude the insertion.

That the facts related in the present volume are not faithfully stated, there is very slender reason for supposing: while in favour of the author's good faith and accuracy, many arguments may be urged, drawn from previously existing accounts, from probability and analogy, and from internal evidences. With one or two exceptions, Mr. Barrow manifests little disposition to credulity, or to hastiness of judgment. His style is, on the whole, perspicuous and elegant; neither careless nor elaborate; and if in parts it may be censured, it is only when the author wishes to excite something more than sedate and temperate approbation; when he ambitiously aims at excellencies either beyond his reach, or incompatible with the nature of his performance. Amid much lustre, to be offended with a few spots would display malignity of criticism; and those animadversions are to be set aside, that would divert our regards from the general excellencies of a work which, while it entertains its readers, will make them wiser, without causing them to be more depraved; and which is calculated to increase the knowlege of human nature, to enlighten the views of policy, and to excite interest for the concerns of suffering humanity.

R. Wood.

ART. II. *Letters written during a Residence in England.* Translated from the French of Henry Meister, together with a Letter from the Margravine of Anspach to the Author. 8vo. pp. 330. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1799.

IT was said of Addison's remarks on Italy, that they might have been written by a person who had never visited that country. The same might be observed respecting great part of the letters before us; for, if we take away those which contain political and literary disquisitions on the English constitution, on Shakspeare, on Rousseau's Social Contract, on the English language, and other topics, the knowlege of which does not necessarily imply a residence in England, there will not be much left to convince the reader that the author had ever been in this island. We do not mention this circumstance as derogating from the real merit of the work, which is instructive and entertaining; nor as impeaching its authenticity, since those portions of it which are the fruit of personal knowlege, though constituting the smaller part of it, are still sufficient vouchers for its genuineness: but, when a publication is announced in the form of a book of travels, a reader would not expect a collection of essays on various subjects; and it is our duty to point out that such is the predominating characteristic of this production.

The translator gives the following short account of the author:

'The author, a Swiss by birth, is named Henry Meister; he resided, for twenty years before the French revolution, at Paris, in quality of correspondent and literary agent for the Empress of Russia, the Duke of Brunswick, and the Margrave of Anspach, together with other northern sovereigns; a character in which the great Voltaire himself appears to have been employed by the princes of the house of Brandenburgh, and which, though it does not entitle the person bearing it, to be enrolled in the *corps diplomatique*, is yet necessary to promote the benefit of society; and, if not so honourable, is, perhaps, a more innocent employ than that of an avowed spy under the protection of letters of credence.

'Mr. Meister is now, or was lately, at Zurich, in Switzerland, and is supported by a pension allowed him by the Margrave of Anspach. He is esteemed, by those who know him best, as a worthy and respectable man, possessing much literary knowledge, and more taste.'

The letters are the result of two residences in England, one in the year 1789, the other in 1792. The descriptive part of them is written with considerable vivacity; and the occasional (perhaps unavoidable) inaccuracies of observation, and misapprehension of customs, are properly corrected by the translator in notes.—The respective merits of the actors at the London theatres are accurately estimated; and the characters of our dramatic authors, particularly Shakspeare, are fairly distinguished and appreciated, if we allow for the writer's taste having been formed on the principles of the French drama.—The most conspicuous feature of the political discussions is their anti-republican tendency.—Some very fanciful opinions are dispersed through the work, particularly those on the moral and physical effects of sea-coal; and, in the following passage, the theory is carried to a length so closely bordering on the ludicrous, as to leave us in doubt whether the writer does not mean to give a burlesque exemplification of it. Being at the representation of Romeo and Juliet, when Mrs. Esten played for the first time the part of Juliet, he says:

'Though my attention was fully taken up with the play and the actress, it was not so much so as to prevent me casting my eyes about me. What a disparity betwixt the melancholy silence which reigned here and the agitation of sympathetic feelings which appear in our theatres! My surprize at discovering so few emotions of concern in the countenances of the spectators, was withheld by observing a young person of a very striking figure, who appeared to me the more amiable as she paid great attention to what was passing on the stage. This lovely creature seemed as insensible as the rest, and I began to tax her in my mind with want of feeling, when all of a sudden she fell breathless into the arms of a young gentleman who sat next her. No doubt she had stifled the agitation of her breast

till nature was overpowered with the efforts she made to refrain from tears. This happened at the conclusion of the tragedy, when Juliet exclaims, throwing herself on the body of her husband:

Stay, stay for me Romeo,
A moment stay; fate marries us in death,
And we are one, no pow'r shall part us.

Be assured, my friend, *that had this sweet girl never inspired the fumes of seacoal, her tears would have flowed sooner than they did*, and the oppression of her breast would not have been so violent: her feelings might not have been more real, but they would have been more tender and expressive.'

This collection contains also a lively letter from the Margravine of Anspach, respecting the abuses of the English constitution, and the difficulty of characterizing the English nation.

O. Wood.

ART. III. *The Daughter of Adoption;* a Tale of Modern Times. By John Beaufort, LL. D. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1801.

THIS novel is certainly not one of that negative class of insipid and senseless productions, which we see frequently issuing from the press merely to swell the catalogues of circulating libraries. The story is interesting, though singular and improbable; the plot is conducted with considerable skill; the descriptions are animated; the characters, in general, are well supported; and the composition possesses force and vivacity, though in many instances it borders on inflation. The work is evidently the production of a mind of no common powers, and an imagination of no vulgar cast: but its morality is, in our opinion, very exceptionable. Scenes of debauchery and libertinism, in which the hero acts a principal character, are too frequently brought to our view, and described in language too impassioned and prurient.

Seraphina, the heroine, in whose behalf our feelings are excited by all that can interest in suffering beauty and excellence, falls under the dominion of unguarded passion, and becomes the unrepenting mistress of the man whom she loves. It is perhaps less difficult to discover that the author is a Godwinian in principle, and that he is an advocate for the doctrine that individuality of affection and possession constitutes a sacred bond in the sexual union, independently of legal forms and social compacts; than it is to reconcile the conduct of his heroine with the profession of such a principle: since, after a long and steady resistance to the earnest and repeated solicitations of her Henry, she at last consents to be made his wife.

Though

Though the modern philosopher, in his own case and practice, might think it necessary to sacrifice a cock to Esculapius, the fictitious heroine of a romance might surely have maintained a consistency of conduct and principle!—Be the intended moral of this novel, however, what it may, we cannot but condemn a work which represents the loss of female chastity as a matter of light concern, and only to be regretted because it incurs the loss of social respectability; and which tends to lessen the dread of vice by exhibiting a picture of its impunity, and by endowing the frail and guilty with every other quality that can command the love, esteem, and admiration of mankind. We think, also, that the palliating arguments respecting incest, which occur towards the close of the last volume, might as well have been omitted; because, though they are put into the mouth of an excentric Being, and are not made influential in the conduct of the story, yet, as the person who adopts them is an amiable character, and as they stand unopposed, they have too much the appearance of possessing some degree of weight with the author, and too strongly excite the idea that he wishes them to make some impression on the reader.

In the following extracts, will be found two good traits, characteristic of the English sailor:

'While the mind of Edmund was in this agitated state, (during the horrors of the revolt of the negroes in St. Domingo,) an instance of unparallelled barbarity worked up his sympathy to a crisis.

'It was the execution of Aboan, a Koromantyn negro, one of the captive leaders of the insurgents; and who having been in his own country a man of some consequence, a chief, and a leader of armies, did not forget, upon this occasion, to support himself with a degree of magnanimity worthy of his former fame.

'Taken in arms against his purchasers, and found guilty of endeavouring to regain his freedom, he was sentenced to be broken on the wheel, together with Otuba, a principal associate in the revolt.

'The place assigned for the execution was immediately under the window of the apartment in which Henry had taken up his abode. The victims approached the scaffold with an undaunted countenance; and all the inhabitants of Cape François thronged to the spectacle, breathing taunts, and insults, and execrations, and whetting the cruelty of the executioner by every excitement that barbarity could devise.

'The torments of the sufferers were accordingly procrastinated, and aggravated, with every refinement of barbarity; till at last the executioner, weary himself, and disgusted with the scene of horrors, dispatched Otuba with a *coup de grâce*, as it is called; and, after a short pause, uplifting his mace again, was about to perform the same cruel kindness for Aboan.

'But the cannibalism of the populace was yet unsatisfied. "Hold! Hold!" was re-echoed from a hundred tongues. The catastrophe was

accordingly delayed; and the wretched Koromantyn, whose every joint was already dislocated, and every bone was broken, was abandoned to the sport and fury of the spectators; who, themselves becoming actors in the bloody scene, aggravated all his sufferings, and procrastinated his tortures; refusing him the wretched privilege of death.

'But Aboan was yet unmoved. He did not supplicate; he did not groan. The sweat drops of agony, indeed, bedewed his mangled limbs; but his eye rolled defiance; and the only sounds that escaped his lips, were those of execration and contempt.

'Thus hour followed hour, and torment succeeded to torment, till at last an English sailor, who served on board a vessel then in the harbour, happening to be on shore, and thronging, like others, to see the spectacle, burst through the crowd, and with characteristic indignation, and a hearty d—n at the cruelty of their French eyes, with a merciful twist of his handkerchief, released the wretched victim from intolerable sufferance.'— — —

"Brave, good fellow!" said Edmunds, shaking him heartily by the hand, while they were talking of that tragical event, "I love and honour thee. Thou hast bowels of compassion, notwithstanding thy rough profession. Thou canst feel for the sufferings of thy fellow beings, whatever be their features or complexions."

"Fellow beings!" replied the sailor; "avast! avast! master, none of that patter neither; though I am a rough sailor, and no scholar, I know larbord from starbord too well to enter that upon my log-book.

"As for fellow creatures, or fellow *beings*, as you call them, I hav'nt sailed so long in the fleet, without being able to know them by their rigging gun shot off. One may call a Scotchman to be sure, or an Irishman, a fellow creature; and so perhaps, for aught I know, one may a Welchman, or these here French fellows, or the like: but as for these black lubbers, why every body knows they are nothing but a sort of monkies: though they do jabber a little: and matter of that, I'll never believe but what the other monkies could talk too, if they would, as well as Christians; only they know that if people knew as how they could talk, they would be obliged to work also.

"But what of that? Man or no man, b—— my eyes if I see why a monkey, or a dog, should be used in that way: and d—— me if shey shall, when I'm by, for all the mounseers in the world."

"Thou art a good fellow for that, however," said Henry; "but what makes you suppose that the blacks are not men as well as yourself?"

"Why as for that, your honour," resumed the sailor, "when I was a boy, and used to go to church o'Sundays, I remember to have heard the parson there read from the pulpit, as how God created man in his own image: and I should be glad to know, sir, whether you or any man in his senses ever believed as how God Almighty was a blackamoor, and had great thick lips and a flat nose, like these here fellows?"

The succeeding quotation, by affording a sample of the heroine's character, and a specimen of her reasoning on the subject

subject of her marriage, will tend to justify some of our succeeding observations:

' The property, indeed, with the immediate possession of which Henry was vested by this will, was very inconsiderable, in comparison with what he might expect at the death of his father; and Henry's general habits of life seemed very well accommodated to the size of his utmost expectations. Upon this basis, however, when the first transports of his grief had subsided, he began to importune Seraphina for her consent to their legal union.

" Let us delay no longer, my love," said he, " the fulfilment of those preliminaries which may enable the virtues of Seraphina to shine forth in their proper lustre, and place her in the rank to which she is entitled in society. Melancholy, indeed, and ever to be deplored is the event that has enabled me to say so—but we have now an independence, even though my father should be inexorable in resenting this act of justice and of virtue."

" An independence, indeed," answered Seraphina, " more than my ambition ever aimed at, or *my* habits would require. But is it such as *you* can be independent upon?"

" Alas! I fear it is not."

" Try—try the experiment first, Henry. Contract your desires. Reform your habits of expense and dissipation. See if you can reconcile yourself to that simplicity of life and manners—that sequestered and philosophical retirement which a contracted income might require.

" O! that you could do so, my Henry! O! that you could!

" Why have you not the fortitude—the wisdom to make the effort? Why has not Seraphina the power to lure you to these paths of peace?"

H. " Doubt not your power, my enchanting Seraphina! Be thou my constant monitor and companion, I will be every thing you can wish."

S. " I needs must doubt, Henry, what I have so often seen to fail. Yet cannot I but wonder that, with powers and faculties like yours, you should want inducement to change your line of conduct.

" Are there no pleasures, thinkest thou, Henry, without the pale of dissipation and expense? Among those complicated powers and faculties that constitute the intellectual agent, Man, are there none that are capable of ministering to his delight, but the grosser ones of sense?

" I would not be a preacher, Henry. I would not exchange the gaiety of my youth, or the softness of my sex, to appear an antiquated pedant in the eyes of the man I love. Yet once in my life, let me yield to the powerful stimulus that seems to prompt my tongue.—Let the mistress be awhile forgotten, while I perform the solemn duty of a friend; and, in the voice of moral exhortation, call upon you, my dearest Henry! to tear yourself from those profligate pursuits and dissipated companions with which you are so unworthily engaged.

" O! try with me, the sweets of a more rational intercourse! Let us commune with the time-honoured dead—let us imitate the frugal

virtues that, in the illustrious examples of antiquity, never fail to excite the admiration even of the dissipated and the prodigal. Look more to intellect, my Henry, and less to sense—walk with the philosophers and the muses, instead of revelling with bacchanalians.

" Let not the Orphic tongue be rendered mute by those licentious passions that tore the Thracian bard at Rhodope.

" Assume that higher port of character for which the organizing power of nature, and the instructions of your most excellent mother, have conspired to fashion you. Qualify yourself for those public utilities to which (in this season of alarms and innovations, when the frame of social nature totters, and the foundations of existing institutions seem to be shaking under them) every man of intellect and virtue should consider himself as liable to be called; and, if your active mind still pants for variety, and the levity of youth must have its relaxations from serious pursuits, let the pleasures of fancy diversify those of science; and let not the delirious visions of the bower of Margot be the only effusions of your pen that may gratify the taste, and rouse the tender feelings of posterity.

" Ah, Henry! if, in consenting to become your wife, I could assure myself, that I should bestow upon you, as my dowry, the stedfast, the unrepining resolution to adopt and persevere in this advice, with how much joy—with how proud a consciousness of disinterested rectitude would I embrace your present proposal! For with such resolutions, and such tastes, thou would'st be more happy—ah! three times thrice more happy, with this comparatively humble independence, than all the wealth of your father can ever make you, while you continue your present career of dissipation and prodigality."—

" I know your sincerity, Henry—but I know your weakness. If in the hour of passion I betrayed myself, I will not, in the hour of passion, betray you also.

" You are moved, my Henry, strongly moved—as your generous nature is apt to be, when that which is good and amiable is set before you: but the cool considerations of judgment must sanction these feelings, before I suffer you to act upon them; and experience must have proved, both to yourself and me, that you are capable of adopting the system which under the influence of those feelings you so enthusiastically approve, before you pass this Rubicon of all your hopes, and shut yourself out from these prospects so indispensable to your present habits.

" Nay, protest not, Henry—endeavour not to enforce upon my heart a credulity to which it is already but too much disposed.

" I am interested enough in the belief of your reformation. I have reason enough to wish what you so generously desire: for I confess my situation is somewhat irksome. My solitude when you are absent (and you have been too often so——It is the first time I have reproached you, Henry—and it shall be the last)—My solitude is rather too absolute; and this Morton—whom I cannot comprehend—whom I cannot approve—(I pray you make not *her* your confident,) and whom yet I cannot shake off, affords not much relief to its occasional dreariness.

" There

" There is a pang of loneliness, Henry. This heart has often felt it: and since the loss of your excellent mother (the aspiring hope of whose society and friendship was no sooner lighted up than it was so fatally extinguished) I have felt, I think, more than ever, the growing desire of social intercourse—the happiness that is to be enjoyed in a small circle of enlightened and congenial minds. But even this, and all that could result from my acquiescence with your present wishes, might be bought too dearly. It would be bought too dearly, if Henry should repent—if his accustomed habits should return upon him, and conspiring with the resentment of an inexorable father, should involve him in misery and ruin.

" Never, never shall you accuse your Seraphina with being the cause of such calamities as then might overwhelm you. – Never, never shall you say—never, never will I expose myself to the anguish of suspecting the glance of your eye, in some distempered moment, of so suggesting—*This, this do I owe to thee, O Seraphina!—To thee and our disastrous union!*'

We shall add no farther remark than that we should be pleased to see talents, such as this writer possesses, more unexceptionably employed than in the present instance; and directed in such a manner that, while his abilities are readily acknowleged, the tendency of his labours may be equally applauded.

O. Wood.

Art. IV. *Physiognomical Travels, preceded by a Physiognomical Journal.*—Translated from the German of J. C. A. Musæus, by Anne Plumptre. To which is prefixed, a short Sketch of the Life and Character of the Author, by his Pupil Kotzebue. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. boards. Longman and Co. 1800.

We have frequently had occasion for observing, that almost every composition which proceeds from a German pen is in the extreme. Whether the author's purpose be to excite our terror, to melt us into tears, or to shake us with laughter, his drawing is always in caricature, and presents either a raw head and bloody bones, or a grinner through a horse collar. In the present satire on Lavater's System of Physiognomy, the same character is in some degree apparent. The plan is to represent an enthusiast in physiognomy making a practical application of the theory, deciding on a man's character from the lines of his face, acting on that decision, and in course involving himself in errors and disasters. As the work, however, is extended to three volumes, we deem it greatly defective in the number and in the variety of its incidents. It abounds with desultory satire on German works and authors, and on various institutions and topics of literature exclusively German; and, as the generality of English readers are unacquainted with the objects, they will be insensible to the poignancy of the sarcasm;—yet the translator

professes to have altered or omitted various passages, which were of too local a nature to be understood in this country.

Musæus was undoubtedly a man of talents, and in considerable estimation among his countrymen as an author: but we question whether, as a satirist, he will be so highly approved by the English reader. His ridicule is overdone: his pictures are overcharged: his lines are too coarse and strong; and his colours are too high. His censure bears the same relation to true satire which buffoonery has to genuine wit, or rant to correct declamation. Every feature is strained, and every posture is forced. The opinions which his hero forms, the resolutions which he adopts, his actions, and the various practical applications of his theory, border too much on extravagance, and are in general carried too far from the line of probability, to produce their due effect. The author has a keen sense of the ridiculous, but he does not manage his materials with skill and judgment;—and he possesses very considerable powers of imagination, but they are not under the controul of delicacy of taste: for the work abounds in tropes, metaphors, and similies, low and dignified, mean and sublime, introduced without ceremony, and mingled together without order or selection.

In extracting the author's account of a Physiognomical Court of Judicature, we shall perhaps convey the most favourable specimen that we could have selected, of his talent for ridicule:

'Besides my friend Sportler, as president, the bench consisted of the minister of the parish, a surgeon, and a painter, all able physiognomists, and provided as assistants to strengthen and confirm his decisions; to which were added the usual justices and assessors of the inquisitorial court.

'Before the sitting was opened, an important debate arose upon the propriety of allowing the painter a seat among the judges, since the physiognomical canon excludes painters from the corporation of physiognomists. On this the minister, a profound orientalist, at that very time engaged in a new translation of the Talmud, and who was extremely addicted to interlarding his conversation with allusions to oriental literature, rose, and with great precision and solemnity, delivered his opinion to the following effect:

"The Lavaterian codex," said he, "which may well be nominated the Koran of the science, declares expressly in the ninth section of the fourth volume, that no painter can be admitted into the physiognomical holy of holies.'—'Very few painters,' adds the same passage, are physiognomists.' And I say, too, very few; for I will not take upon myself to assert positively that there may not be exceptions; but this I will advance with confidence, that I never met with any deserving of a place beyond the outward courts of the sanctuary, one who was so truly and completely master of the science as to deserve the priesthood. However," he continued, "I will not venture, as I said

I said before, to deliver a positive opinion upon the present case: in the multitude of counsellors there is safety; and I shall rather assent to the decision of my colleagues *in foro conscientiæ.*"

'The artist defended himself extremely well. He said it was the same with painters as with all other classes of men; very few indeed had the reputation of being complete physiognomists, because very few were sufficiently arrogant to trumpet forth their own fame, or to deliver their sentiments with confidence among such a multitude of pretenders. Perhaps it might be true that no painter was complete master of the science of physiognomy; but he knew no man of any other profession who was so. If a single individual among the company present, felt such entire confidence in his own powers as to be able, with his hand on his heart, conscientiously to declare his firm conviction that he never could be mistaken in his physiognomical judgment, he only was fit to cast the first stone at a neighbour. And now he said, he had given them all a fair challenge; till this stone was cast, he should hold himself as well entitled to a voice in the assembly as the rest. Since no one then grasped at a stone, for this very good reason, that there did not happen to be any stones in the room, the artist remained in quiet possession of his place.

'The culprits were now brought to the bar: a mixed multitude of all nations and languages under the sun. Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites, and the dwellers in Cappadocia and Asia, in Phrygia and Pamphylia, as enumerated in the epistle for Whitsunday: or, rather, they were, in this instance, from the Elbe, the Oder, the Rhine, the Weser, and the Donau; a medley of criminals of all descriptions and denominations. As the clerk of arraigns made proclamation of the crimes with which each stood charged, they were examined with very inquisitive glances from all sides, to see whether they did not change colour; though, strictly speaking, they had no colour to change, since their meagre fare in the Burgholzheim prison had given them somewhat of a cœochymical aspect. Far, however, from manifesting any signs of conscious guilt, some of these poor wretches seemed perfectly insensible to their situations, and to make a jest of the whole matter; one was even so careless and unconcerned as to amuse himself with catching the flies as they settled upon the ballustrade of the bar. I concluded immediately, both from this circumstance as well as from his physiognomy, that he must be a hardened sinner, to whom arraignment in a court of justice was not recommended by novelty.

'I soon perceived that the surgeon was no universalist in the physiognomical art, but a mere partialist, directing his attention entirely to the hair, the beard, and the teeth. At the conclusion of the sitting, I could not help inquiring what might be his motives for confining his observations within such contracted limits? He told me, that he thought these three objects, from the nature of his profession, as barber and surgeon, lay more particularly within his province. For this reason, he said, he had looked over the Fragments in the full confidence of finding among them much useful information on these very important branches of physiognomy; but sorry was he to say that his researches had ended only in disappointment, since the

author,

author, through a most culpable degree of negligence, had entirely passed them over. The only thing from which he derived any assistance was from the fellow with his hand raised up in the fifth table of the first part. By the teeth alone, he affirmed, could this man be classed among the ne'er-be-goods; and from this clue he had been led to make a series of observations, by which he was now enabled to determine the character from the physiognomy of the teeth alone, with as much certainty as a naturalist decides by them what animals are, and what are not, carnivorous.

'The painter in the mean time rendered a most important service by sketching the features of the prisoners, which, at the president's desire, were laid before the court to assist the physiognomical decision of the honourable judges. When they were finished, and the delinquents sufficiently examined, the latter were remanded back to prison, that the inquisitors might impart their opinions to each other in private, and consult together upon the verdict.

'The first thing to be arranged was, whether the voting should commence with the president, and descend ftom him downwards; or, whether the lowest in rank among the judges was to speak first, and the voting to ascend from him to the president. Here no difference of opinion prevailed: it was the unanimous wish of the assembly that the great Sportler's sentiments should be first delivered.

'In complying with this request he displayed a degree of knowledge in his peculiar department of physiognomy which never can be exceeded by any votary of the science, and is not likely to be even equalled. He descanted in a very ample manner on the several crimes imputed to the delinquents; pointed out the appropriate features of one crime and those of another; and, by applying these rules to the physiognomies we had been examining, clearly shewed us where the accusations were absolutely false, and where perfectly just, as well as where they were only partially false and true. This was done with an eloquence so irresistible, that not a doubt seemed to remain on the minds of any of the court, but all declared their unqualified assent to every one of his propositions.'—

'By this physiognomical decision, one of the culprits, notwithstanding that he made the most solemn asseverations of his innocence, was condemned, because, as our president very wisely observed, those who deny the charge against them are always the most hardened villains. But to make amends, and to bring the scale of mercy down to a level with that of justice, the master of a public-house, notorious as a receptacle for thieves, and in whose custody stolen goods had actually been found, who, moreover, almost confessed the allegations against him, was acquitted, the president declaring, with no less sagacity, that one of the class to which his physiognomy belonged, must be incapable of committing the offences imputed to him. With respect to some others, judgment was suspended a while, because their lineaments were not of a nature sufficiently decided, to admit the pronouncing of a hasty sentence.

'But among the whole group, not one physiognomy so forcibly arrested Sportler's attention as that of the fly-catcher. He was detained in custody on suspicion of being the author of an incendiary letter,

letter, circulated about the country, instigating the people to resist the payment of certain contributions, for which they were called upon by the magistrates. With this the president declared himself by no means satisfied. It was not, he affirmed, the genuine contour of an incendiary, though he acknowleged himself perplexed to decide what else might be the nature of his offence. Thus much, however, he could for a certainty determine, that it was the physiognomy of an enormous criminal; of one who had so far exceeded the common bounds of guilt, that his offence had not yet found a place in any code either physiognomical or juridical. Assuming therefore, an air of extreme mystery, he requested that the man might be brought up again in the afternoon to undergo a private examination before himself, and the criminal judge of the Burgholzheim jurisdiction, alone. This matter being settled, the court was adjourned to the time appointed.'

From the prefixed biographical sketch of Musæus, we learn that he was born at Jena in 1735, his father being one of the magistrates of that town; that he entered into the ministry, and preached several times with considerable applause, but that 'a curious circumstance closed this path against him: he was to have been minister of Pfarrode, a village near Eisenberg, but the peasants would not permit him to become the shepherd of their souls, because he had once been known to dance!'—that he was afterward appointed Governor of the Pages at the Court of Weimar, and then Professor of the Gymnasium there; and that he died in 1787. His character is said to have been so truly amiable, that, 'though he wrote satires, he never had an enemy'; and 'within the walls of Weimar lived not a soul that did not wish him well, for his humour was never mixed with gall: the arrows of his wit were never dipt in poison.'

Of the merits of the translator, our readers will form a judgment from the preceding quotations. *O. Wood.*

ART. V. *The History of the Campaigns in Germany, Italy, &c.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 261.]

THE fifth and last volume of this valuable work narrates the particulars of the campaign in Holland in the year 1799; a subject peculiarly interesting to British readers, and which they will find treated in the author's best style. While we acknowlege ourselves indebted to the predilection here shewn in favour of our country and its inhabitants, we must observe that the effects of flattery are baneful to states as well as to individuals. Britain has faults: but we trust that she possesses that conscious excellence which would induce her to attend, with good humour and candour, while those errors, with which she is chargeable, were fully exposed and freely censured.

censured. Her undertakings have often been well planned; she has discovered boldness, vigour, and judgment, in the execution of them; and success has often crowned her attempts: but, on the other hand, exceptions have occurred; and when such present themselves, they who would gloss over the causes which occasion them are friends more to be shunned and dreaded, than the most determined open foes. Whether any blame belongs to those who were concerned in the expedition here recorded, it is not our province to examine: but, if this historian be correct, none lies at the door of our brave soldiers, and their gallant leaders.—Where the author is not an apologist, but keeps within the line of his proper functions, he acquits himself in the best manner; his accounts are clear, circumstantial, and satisfactory;—and equalling, if not rising superior to the merit which he displayed in the fourth volume, he is intitled to the praise of a very accomplished military annalist.

The views with which England set on foot the Dutch expedition, and the grounds for expecting success, are here thus stated:

'Of all the countries which the fate of war had laid under the yoke of France, that which England naturally must and did most regret to see in her hands, were the United Provinces. She had contributed in 1793 to save them from a threatened invasion: an extraordinary winter, and the reverses experienced by her allies, had put it out of her power in 1795 to prevent this misfortune: she was anxious in 1799 to repair it, to which she was influenced by various powerful motives. Her honour called upon her to effect the deliverance of an ancient and faithful ally.—Her political interest required the re-establishment of a power, which, ever since the American war, and during the three first years of the present, had steadily participated in her views, and made a common cause with her upon the continent.—Her commercial interests enjoined her to recover the most certain and the easiest outlet for the produce of her manufactures, and that of her colonies.—Her naval, her military, and her financial interests, demanded that she should deprive the French of the disposal of the force by sea and land, which they derived from the possession of a country situated with respect to Great Britain so as to threaten constantly its navigation or its coasts, and to force it to ensure the security of both, by maintaining at a great expence a strong squadron in the German ocean.—The embarrassed state of the French finances pointed out how important it was not to leave in the hands of France a country, from which ever since its subjugation, she had annually drawn more than three millions sterling, either in money or military stores.—Finally, the warm interest which Great Britain took in the operations of the combined Imperial armies, inspired her with a wish to facilitate their success, by a powerful diversion.—

'Great as were the motives to undertake the emancipation of Holland, the grounds for hoping that it would be attended with success were not less. The campaign had opened under the most happy

auspices

auspices for the Allies, and the months of March and April had produced to them a brilliant series of triumphs. The excellence of their troops—the superiority of their numbers—the high and justly acquired reputation which their commanders possessed—the spirited efforts which were made by the armed inhabitants of Italy and of Switzerland to second them—the obvious discouragement of the French armies—the great diminution of force which they had experienced in so short a time—the extreme repugnance shewn by the conscripts to fill up the void—the almost total want of money, and the embarrassments of every description which the Directory experienced—the energetic dispositions manifested by the two Emperors to support the war—the discontents which again seemed on the point of seriously breaking out in the west of France, and in the Austrian Netherlands—every thing in short afforded grounds for believing, that the successes of the Allies would be rapidly improved; that towards the months of July and August, the entire military resources which France might possess, would be exhausted in repairing the losses which she would then have suffered: that at this period she would even be reduced to the necessity of defending her own frontiers; and that consequently she would not in Holland be able to face a sudden and vigorous attack. The political and commercial bonds which had long united the latter to England—the great number of partizans which the House of Orange and the Stadtholderian government retained—the little ardour with which the inhabitants had adopted a revolution of which the consequences had drained of immense sums a country where money is the first object—the moral impulse which had there, as elsewhere, been given to the public mind by the brilliant opening of the campaign—all these were considerations which, supported by the most authentic information received from that country, afforded reason for thinking that the Dutch would not readily second the efforts of the French, and that, rather than cement with their own blood their state of subjection, they would shed it in the cause of their deliverers.

'Such were the circumstances which authorised the English government to think of an enterprise against Holland: such were the motives which determined it to make the attempt; and such the reasons which afforded hopes of a favourable result.'

The writer's observations on the relative importance of the province of Holland, and that of the capital, are not less curious than (in our judgment) correct:

'The province of Holland, comprehending nearly a fourth of the territory of the Republic, containing half the population *, and

'* The population of the Seven United Provinces, is generally estimated at near 2,500,000 souls, and that of the province of Holland alone, at 1,200,000, divided between 37 towns, and more than 400 villages. Its territory comprehends 1,800 square miles, while that of all the provinces does not exceed 7,500. Their length is 48 German leagues (about 150 miles), and their breadth 40 (about 125 miles). The province of Holland, from the Helder to Williamstadt, extends 27 leagues, and from West to East 24.'

paying

paying more than two-fifths of the contributions levied upon the whole of the Seven United Provinces, had, both in the interior administration and in the external affairs, so great and manifest a preponderance, that it had become customary in Europe to see in her alone, and to denote by her name only, the Republic of the United Provinces. What Holland was to them, the city of Amsterdam was to this province. It was become, from local circumstances, the most considerable and the richest city of the state; was the depot of wealth, the centre of public and private affairs, the magazine of the commerce of the Republic and of almost the whole North of Europe. From it, in a country created and supported by industry, sprung all the branches of industry—to it all the fruits of industry returned—It contained nearly a sixth part of the population of the United Provinces—it paid a third of the public contributions—it was in every point of view, of much more importance to the confederate state, than its capital is relatively speaking to any other country in Europe. —It may be said to have been at once the soul and the head of the political system.

'Upon the existence therefore of the province of Holland and of Amsterdam, depended in some measure that of the United Provinces.'

The importance of the object of this expedition is not exaggerated by the author; we admit it as fully as he does: but we do not see how he preserves consistency, when he elevates the acquisition of the Dutch fleet to an equality with it. We believe that the defence of this business, said to have been made by the ex-minister of war, and which is retailed here, never convinced the understanding of the country; and that, if inquiry was not permitted, it was because it was proposed to turn less on the merits of the particular question, and of the minister immediately implicated in it, than on those of the administration in general. Indeed, we are much inclined to suspect that the good sense of the author has been no more misled on this subject than that of the British public; and the futile apologies, which he mixes with his admirable narrative, must be attributed to the motives of his heart rather than to the decisions of his judgment.—We shall have occasion to return to some of these considerations, at the close of the present article.

The destination of the expedition was known to the enemy long before its operations commenced; the place of disembarkation alone was kept secret; and this, we are told, was left altogether to the decision of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, by whose determination the Helder was chosen.—The fatal effects of the delay occasioned by the weather appear to be here fully proved and displayed: but we apprehend that on this point the public are sufficiently informed and decided.—The situation of the French and Dutch, on the landing of the British, is thus stated:

'On

'On the 1st and 2d of September the French troops continued to arrive at Alkmaar, where General Brune joined them on the latter of these days. Upon the 3d he inspected the whole line of defence, and ordered new dispositions, of which the execution was proceeded upon the same evening, and which were completed in the two following days.—Upon the 6th the Republican army was concentrated in front of Alkmaar, with its right at Rustenburg, its centre occupying St. Pancras, and its left extending to the Sand-hills and to the sea near Groet. Upon the 8th the Batavian division of General Dumonceau having arrived from Amsterdam at Alkmaar, took post in the centre of the army, that of General Daendels forming the right, and the French troops the left.—The total number of the army amounted to about 20,000 men, of whom about 7,000 were French.

'Such was upon the 9th the situation and the force of the Republicans. They expected further reinforcements from Flanders and from the interior of the United Provinces, and they were arming in their rear the national guards of the country. They had likewise lost no time in providing for the defence of Amsterdam by sea and land; gun-boats had been fitted out and stationed in the Pampus and in the Ye; batteries had been erected upon the coasts; and two lines of entrenchments had been formed, which extended from Monnikendam and Purmerend to the Ye. General Brune was well supported in his measures by the Batavian Directory, in whose minds the rapid march of the French troops had destroyed whatever effect might have been produced by the first events of the expedition. The same circumstance had a similar effect upon the minds of the inhabitants of Holland, who, although desirous of a change, preferred the indolence of hope to active exertion.'

Various particulars, highly to the honour of the General who has since fallen so gloriously on the plains of Egypt, and which renew the lamentation and regret so universally produced by this catastrophe, are related in this work: but, in the choice of the Helder for a point of landing, the uncertainty of the elements seems not to have been duly considered; and the deceitful hope of a general rising in our favour must have been entertained. Though the author fixes the responsibility of this measure on our departed hero, we believe that he was incapable of committing any fatal error in the discharge of his professional duty; and he either acted on false information, which he received from those whose province it was to have sifted it, or his plans were not pursued,—or he was not supported as he had been promised. Some one of these suppositions it is reasonable to indulge, rather than impute blame of such serious magnitude to a character which had hitherto been so free from it. Nothing but the most positive evidence ought to induce us to abandon this view of the affair: but, be this as it may, we fully agree with an observation reported to have been made by a celebrated statesman, that no spot in Europe is more unfavourable to offensive war, than the one which was chosen; and the following passage shews that this remark is well founded:

'Political and local circumstances were of much more consequence than the sentiments and opinions of Dutch or French. The three weeks which had elapsed from the period when it became evident that the armament was intended against North Holland, had enabled the Republicans to avail themselves of the means of defence which it affords. They had it in their power to chuse, in a manner, from mile to mile in their rear, positions each equally strong—they had had time to convert every dike into an entrenchment—every road into a defile, and every field (if the expression may be used) into a kind of fortress. The extreme *facility* of conveyance by water had *facilitated* to them the means of forming wherever they chose magazines of military stores and of provisions; and it likewise rendered the movements of their troops at once more expeditious and less fatiguing.—Each day would diminish the only disadvantage under which the Republicans laboured, that of inferiority in number. The whole of the troops either of reserve, or new battalions raised by conscription in the United Provinces, in the Netherlands, or in the country between the Meuse and the Rhine, were upon the march towards North Holland; the Directory not having any longer reason to apprehend an invasion of the eastern side of France, since the Archduke Charles had quitted Switzerland with the greatest past of his army.'

Refraining from any general summary of operations, we must be contented to notice a few of the more important events. —The views of both parties in the action of the 19th of September, the particulars of that day, the precipitate and disorderly march of the Russians, the repulse which they experienced, the discouragement which they felt in consequence of this check, their obstinate refusal to form themselves when British assistance arrested the career of their pursuers, and the effect which these circumstances produced on the event of the day, are stated by the present author with great method and perspicuity. The false accounts transmitted by General Essen to his Imperial master are, as we think, satisfactorily refuted; and the writer argues very plausibly in defence of the plan which was followed on this occasion by the British Commander in Chief;—a point on which we do not consider ourselves as competent to give judgment.

In the battle of the 2d of October, the Russians appear to have been as much in one extreme, as they had before been in the other; and but for their inactivity, the main objects of this last day would, according to our author, have been in a great degree attained —These charges against our co-operators might not only create surprize, but excite suspicions respecting their justice, if the causes which account for the conduct imputed to them were not laid down in a note of great interest and curiosity; we shall present it to our readers:

'It may have been remarked that the conduct of the Russians in this affair was directly opposite to what it had been in that of the 19th,

19th, in the one advancing too far and too rapidly, in the other not far enough and too slowly; in both however ill conforming to the superior orders they had received.

'This inequality of conduct cannot be attributed to an inequality of bravery in the troops of that nation, for it is really as uniform as it is generally acknowledged to be—But what they did on the one hand in Holland under General Essen, and in Switzerland under General Korsakow, and on the other in Italy under Marshal Suwo-row, has proved, that with them more than any other troops, good or bad success depends on the Generals who command them; that they are capable of performing prodigies, under an able leader, and one who knows their particular qualities; and that when they have not this advantage, they are liable to experience greater disasters than the troops of any other nation would have experienced in similar situations.

'This is easily understood by any one who knows that the principle of the bravery of the Russians, is a blind obedience to their officers and an absolute contempt of danger; that by means of these two great impulses, the Russian infantry has become equal if not superior to the best which exists, but that in it alone consist all the strength and merit of the Russian army; that their cavalry, their artillery, and particularly their staff and corps of engineers are very inferior; and that the greater part of their subaltern officers are incapable of any thing beyond obedience.—From this it results that the General alone ought to supply the inequality in the different branches of the army, and that if he is destitute of talent, if he cannot himself from local circumstances direct the different corps, if he has been killed or made prisoner, this misfortune cannot as in most other great armies of Europe, be repaired by a staff accustomed to take a part in all the details of command, and by the tried intelligence of subaltern officers, and in some degree of the soldier himself.

'These defects in the composition of the Russian armies have been acknowledged by Marshal Suworow, and certainly no person knew better than he did the particular genius of his nation, and the means of turning it to the best advantage. Those who have observed his conduct, may have remarked that he constantly endeavoured to avail himself of the strong part of the Russian army, and to avoid exposing its weak part. Thus, as has been seen in the preceding volume in the battles of the Trebbia, he placed his infantry in such a manner that it had free scope for its bravery and its favourite way of fighting. —It was thus that at Novi, putting the Austrians upon the two wings where fighting was to be attended with manœuvring, which perhaps the Russians would have ill executed, he placed the latter in the centre, where the attack was so be simply in front, but where it was of such a nature, that however good the Austrian army is, it perhaps would not have been equal to it. It was thus that in the valley of Mutten, in place of employing in his defence, *demonstrations*, *tirailleurs*, and detached parties, as the French did in their attack, Suworow made his troops fight in a body and with the bayonet, and thus extricated himself from one of the worst situations in which any General ever found himself.'

The victory of the 2d of October resembled those of Pyrrhus; the success had been too limited, and the loss too great, to secure the purposes which the Royal commander had hoped to have gained by it. One attempt more it was his intention to have made: but he was prevented by the obstinacy of the Russians, which converted an affair of posts into a general engagement, terminating not very favourably. Fresh reinforcements had added to the power of the enemy, so that nothing could be hoped from another action; and it became necessary to give attention to those humiliating, but unavoidable steps which were afterward adopted. The grounds of these measures will be best learned from a perusal of the representations submitted to the Commander in Chief by the Lieutenant-Generals, which stated as follows:

"That the five great actions which the army had fought since its disembarkation, had occasioned a diminution of its numbers, in killed, wounded, taken, or sick, to the amount of 9 or 10,000 men; and that *that* loss could not be quickly repaired, while the enemy, although having experienced a greater one, were become and would be daily more and more numerous—That the advanced period of the season, and the unheard of succession of storms and rains which had taken place for the three preceding weeks, had rendered the roads impracticable and had worn out the soldiers with fatigue, obliged as they were to be continually on the alert in bad and too extended cantonments—That the same adverse season had for more than a fortnight impeded the navigation of the Zuyder Zee, and that since the 10th of September no vessel had been able to co-operate with them on the coast which flanked their right—That notwithstanding the advantage of canals, it had never been possible to give above two days bread, and seldom so much to the soldiers in advance—That this mode of conveyance existed no longer, now that they were beyond Alkmaar, the enemy having carried off all the boats, and those of which they had hitherto made use not being able to enter into the canals, which are much narrower than on the other side of Alkmaar: and that if the army continued to advance, there was no probability that they would be able to procure a sufficient number of carriages to bring up the supplies—That the position which they occupied offered no natural advantage, and was not susceptible of improvement by art, it being no other than a line of open cantonments, in which the troops having no obstacle or point of support to oppose to the enemy, were obliged to be constantly on the alert; and that a great part of them had been for four days under arms among the Sand-hills, exposed to continual rain—That supposing they succeeded in forcing the position of Beverwick, they could not continue in it, as they possessed no certain means of conveyance for the provisions, while they would have in front the French army become more formidable, and the greatest part of the Batavian troops on the left flank and on the rear—That the two great bases on which the plan of this expedition had rested, were, 1st, the expectation of a general insurrection

insurrection of the Dutch people as soon as they should see a considerable corps ready to support them; and the 2d, that the French, vigorously attacked upon the most vulnerable parts of their frontiers, could not, or would not think of defending points more distant and less important.—The first of these expectations had entirely failed, no insurrection having taken place in the country which was the theatre of operations, nor in those parts in sight of which the English navy had appeared, nor in the more distant provinces which the French had left for a long time destitute of troops. The second had been no better realised; the inactivity of the Imperial army in Switzerland and in Germany, having permitted the French to devote to the defence of Holland forces so considerable, that there could be no reasonable hope of being able to overcome, or even in the end to withstand them."

The diplomatic manœuvres being performed, the well known treaty ratified, and the British troops and their allies being safely on board their ships, on their return home, the author lays aside the character of an historian, and in his last chapter assumes (as we have before remarked) the functions of an apologist. He first considers the objections made to the point which was chosen for landing, and the part of the country selected to be the theatre of war;—he next treats of the several places which have been represented as preferable, namely Zealand, the islands belonging to the province of Holland, the provinces of Friesland and Groningen, and states the reasons for not adopting them;—and he then discusses the subject of naval expeditions, maintaining that from their nature they are more liable to fail than likely to succeed, and that this has been the fate of many among those which have been most ably conducted, as that of Pyrrhus in proceeding from Epirus to Tarentum, that of Louis XI. in the crusade of 1249, that of Charles V. against Algiers, and lastly that of the "invincible armada." He extols the wise and manly conduct of the Duke of York, in the difficult circumstances to which he was reduced; classes him among Generals of the first order; and consoles him by observing that the greatest commanders have experienced similar disasters,—of which Amilcar in Sicily and General Melas in Lombardy are examples.

The reasonings and deductions of this zealous and ingenious advocate may reconcile us to the failure of the expedition: but, in the degree in which they account for the unfortunate catastrophe, they seem to us to impeach the propriety of the measure in the first instance, and to lead demonstrably to the following conclusion;—that, without the certainty either of a general insurrection in our favour at the moment when we landed, or that France would send no supplies to their own forces, the expedition, considering its force, and the want of

the co-operation of Prussia, was a pure game at hazard. It has been always rumoured that this was the uniform and decided opinion of the much lamented officer, under whom it auspiciously commenced.

We shall now present to our readers the author's observations on the importance of the surrender of the Dutch fleet:

'Four signal victories, each of which would have been sufficient to throw a splendour upon any preceding war and perhaps to fix its result, had so habituated the English to naval triumphs, and had impressed upon them so great an idea of their superiority at sea, that however brilliant it was to have for the first time forced the passage of the Texel, however advantageous and unexampled it was to have, without the loss of a man, taken from the enemy thirty ships of war, they no longer felt disposed to estimate these advantages according to their full value. Still they were evident in the very first instance, when, the French having succeeded in bringing into Brest the Spanish fleet, the English saw their superiority in the channel encreased by the removal of the necessity of keeping a powerful fleet in the North Seas, which at the same time that it diminished the public expence added to the security of the eastern coast of Great Britain. The full value of these advantages was however felt —when the French, victorious on all sides upon the continent, proclaimed their intention of re-appearing on the Ocean and of reviving their plans of invasion; —and when the Batavian government, whose servility to that of France had increased, used every effort to re-create a navy.—It was felt when the changes which took place in the politics of the north afforded hopes to France, that a maritime confederacy was on the eve of being formed against England, and when in consequence of the difference with Denmark the whole North Sea fleet proceeded to the Sound. These were circumstances which pointed out very decidedly how important the weight was which had been thrown into the scale of the English navy, when the Batavian Government was deprived of a greater number of ships than she had the means of rebuilding, and a greater number of sailors than she could procure in the space of several years. To this event must undoubtedly be ascribed the possibility of leaving without danger the mouth of the Texel unguarded, of silencing in a very few days the pretensions of Denmark, and of maintaining in the channel the superiority over France and Spain, without affecting the power or diminishing the glory which the British navy claimed so decisively in the Mediterranean and the eastern and western hemisphere.'

We are as ready as any persons can be to state these advantages, in all their extent: but let us not be told that the expedition *only failed in part:* the remarks urged in support of this paradox are disgraceful to the advocate, and insulting to the understandings of those to whom they are addressed. Suppose that a man sues in law for the fee simple of a valuable farm, and that the standing crop of one field is made over to him, while the suit goes against him;—exactly similar to the gains

of

of such a man, was our success in Holland; and in the same sense in which he succeeds in part, have we succeeded in part. In fact, considering what the object was, and its incalculable importance, the failure was as complete as it was lamentable; and the capture of the Dutch fleet is to be considered only as an alleviating circumstance. The valour of our troops secured us from the addition of disgrace to the mortification of defeat; and a proper use of adversity may intitle us to future success.

This volume is illustrated by several large and (apparently) valuable maps, and is terminated by a copious appendix, containing official papers and documents, letters from the Commander in Chief, lists of killed and wounded, &c. &c.

We have now reached the close of this very elaborate and extensive work; which details the particulars of a struggle that has scarcely a parallel in the annals of the world. Having adverted to the faults of the history, we do not hesitate to conclude by recommending it, in the strongest manner, to those who seek instruction rather than amusement; though much of the latter is also to be found in its pages. We suppose that it was principally designed to meet the eyes of professional men: but the politician must not disregard it, since it uniformly connects the feats of war with the aims and views of the contending powers;—a part of his design to which the writer has paid great attention, and in which his merits are very considerable. Had he less indulged the spirit of party, and had he checked the rancour called forth (probably) by the recollections of great personal injustice, he might in many respects have stood a comparison with those illustrious historians, whose example he would in that case have followed. The feelings of the *Gentilhomme François*, and the sentiments of a gallant Chevalier, give the ton in our fashionable circles: but in the court of the Muses, where the simplicity of the classical ages has ever been principally in vogue, they appear more than semi-barbarous. The historian who would leave behind him a durable monument, to command the respect of future ages, must skake off all predilections in favour of men and of measures; and, leaving these to posterity,—a more able and much fairer judge,—must confine himself to report the views, the plans, and the deeds of the actors in his scenes, with the effects which they have produced. He must place himself on an eminence beyond the reach of infection from the passions of his own times, if he be ambitious of appearing to advantage in distant periods,—if he would make his work a Κτημα ες αει. This was the course by which Thucydides and Polybius, Davila and de Thou, attained the pinnacle of historical fame.

Jo.

ART. VI. *An Historical and Practical Essay on the Culture and Commerce of Tobacco.* By William Tatham. 8vo. pp. 330. 6s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

PARTIAL as we old fellows may be supposed to be to the

" Blest leaf, whose aromatic gales dispense
To templars modesty, to *critics* sense ;"

and indebted as we may frequently have been to its tranquillizing influence, for the calm discharge of the duties of our irritating profession, we were rather surprised at seeing it made the subject of a handsome octavo volume. We received the work, however, with as much respect as Uncle Toby and Mr. Shandy would have manifested towards it ; and we beg to return our best thanks to Mr. Tatham for the singular attention which he has bestowed on our favourite plant. Though he has not produced a sprightly essay, rivalling in wit the celebrated poems in praise of *A Pipe of Tobacco*, he has presented us with an instructive publication ; in which are detailed the particulars of the history of this vegetable, its cultivation, and the several laws by which its commerce has been regulated. He offers the fruits of observation and experience ; and in addition to his own remarks, made during a long residence in the interior parts of America, he subjoins a variety of extracts from public documents existing on both sides of the Atlantic. To the cultivator of this plant, to the merchant, and to the man of science, the volume will be acceptable ; and, if Mr. T. should be accused of some prolixity, he will still be allowed the merit of having spared no pains in the discussion of his subject.—As to the botanical name of tobacco, *Nicotiana*, he informs us, in his preface, that it took its origin from the person who first introduced this plant into France; who was *Jean Nicot*, master of requests, ambassador from Francis II. to Sebastian King of Portugal.

The work is divided into six parts: the *first* containing a full account of the *culture of Tobacco*, including the whole process, from the choice of the ground and the sowing of the seed, to the gathering in of the crop. The *second* part describes the *manner of housing, curing, and vending Tobacco in Virginia*, with an account of the tobacco-house, of the preparations for curing the plant, of bringing it into case or condition, of stowing in bulk, of stemming, of prizing *, of packing the hogshead, of

* *Prizing* is a technical term, which may be defined to oe the act of pressing or squeezing the article into its package, by means of certain levers, screws, or other mechanical powers, so that its size may be reduced in stowage, and the air so pressed out of it as to render it less liable to accident and exterior injury.

cooperage,

cooperage, and of conveyance to market. The *third* part relates to the *warehouse and inspection*, in which is detailed a description of the office of inspector of tobacco in the public warehouses in Virginia;—a situation, we are informed, of high trust and importance, constituted by legislative authority, and which, 'to the great credit of the institution, has scarcely produced an instance of corruption;'—of opening and breaking the hogshead for inspection, and of passing and burning, &c. &c. Here it is remarked that

'If the leaf appears to be well cured, and put up in merchantable order and condition, they generally *pass* the tobacco immediately on the spot. If the case is doubtful, they retire to the inspectors' room to deliberate; and if the tobacco plants are either the product of suckers, of indifferent quality, or put up in bad order, they condemn the whole hogshead. In this last case it is burnt; and although it is thus a total loss to the proprietor, and has by custom become a kind of perquisite to the warehouse attendants, yet so surprizingly has this inquisition of traffic been managed, so prudently has the authority been exercised, and so much are mankind to be reconciled to habitual losses, that I scarcely recollect a murmur against the inspectors, although I have lived several years on the premises adjoining to the tobacco kilns, where, perhaps, a thousand hogsheads have been burnt in my presence.'

Mr. T. then proceeds to treat of the warehouse entry, and tobacco-note; and the attention paid to the cultivation and curing of this *sacred* plant, as he in one place calls it, will be seen by the following extract, which is necessary to illustrate this part of the subject:

'The method of book-keeping in these warehouses is necessarily specific, and suited to the occasion: they have the crop book, the transfer book, and some others; and their forms are in some instances under legal regulations, and ruled in columns.

'The crop book is the most important concern: it contains a regular entry, in columns, of every single hogshead of *crop* tobacco which is passed in the warehouse to which it refers, from the beginning to the end of the year; and a single line for each hogshead respectively, when written transversely through these columns, specifies the planter's mark and number, the date when such hogshead was passed and received into the public care, the name of the proprietor, the gross, tare, and nett, weight in pounds, the proportion of *stemmed* tobacco, of which the hogshead is composed, and leaves a broad margin for casual notes, references to the shipment of such hogshead, &c. From this entry a printed formal receipt or note is filled up, signed by the inspectors, and delivered to the proprietor; and it is by this note that all tobaccos are bought and sold, and circulated throughout the continent, in the same manner as bank notes, or current coin: the evidence of a deposit of so much in the public warehouses being there certified officially upon the face of the note, and the

the current value, or market price, receiving an universal tone from the specific credibility of the inspection where the deposit is made.

'This note is therefore a sufficient authority in the hands of the holder, to ask, demand, receive, sue for, and recover, the tobacco or its value, which the note specifies to have been deposited; and when the tobacco is taken away from the public warehouse, to be shipped by the merchant, this note is always returned to the inspector as his voucher for the delivery. In some instances, however, the greater crop masters, and those who are standing customers to particular merchants, decline the trouble and risk of taking out tobacco notes, and give a general or special order for the delivery of their crop; which is equally certain, as the inspectors never fail to make an immediate entry of the weights from the scale room.'

We are next presented with an account of the transfer of tobacco;—of shipping and the manifest;—of delivery;—of depredations of the crop-master, overseer, and *hands*; and of their respective shares, functions, and privileges. Here Mr. Tatham expresses his sentiments respecting negro slavery, which rather incline to favour than to suppress this degrading condition of humanity, in spite of his concluding period:

'The *hands* are most generally slaves belonging to the estate; and these in some instances are attached to it, and descend with the land to the next heir: in others they are considered personal property, according to the nature of the case, and the local regulations of the particular legislation; for each state in the union retains its distinct and separate *sovereign* rights, and the boasted supremacy which an Englishman is wont to ascribe to Congress is more qualified than it is generally conceived to be. The sons, however, of many planters work in the crop equally with the negroes, nor is there any material practical distinction observed between them. There are also white hirelings who cultivate tobacco, especially upon the footing of *croppers*, but these are more generally found among the Irish and German planters, than among the Virginians, and their fare is in common with the family. Confining the idea of *hands* to negroes who compose the majority, their master is compensated for their labours in the crop, by an allowance of their proportionate shares. In return for this he generally furnishes them with coarse clothing; a negro quarter residence, or a private house of their own, if they choose to build one out of his materials; as much land as they think proper to cultivate at leisure hours, rent free; a regular allowance of corn and salt provisions, or salted fish; the privilege of cultivating cotton, melons, potatoes, vegetables, flax, hops, fruits, &c.; of rearing as many ducks, geese, dunghill fowls, and turkies, as they can manage: in some instances this indulgence is extended to a small stock of swine; and I have known many slaves who kept their own horses, and lived comfortably and respectably upon the surplus of their time.

'It is true, indeed, that the policy of the law has invested the master with an absolute authority to tyrannize; but this is rarely

exercised, and especially since the American revolution. There are, however, some whose avarice is found to stimulate them to acts of severity and penury, but such are justly abhorred, and the perpetrators of those cowardly cruelties are seldom without the penalty of their demerit, in the conspicuous contempt of their neighbours. When it is considered, indeed, from how many social cares and duties negro slavery is exempted; that the master is obliged to provide for them in all events; that prudence often elevates their circumstances above the industrious labourer of Europe; that the mitigated condition of their present shackles, renders the name of the thing more horrible than the restraint, it may (though not to be voluntarily sought after) be a more enviable situation, in the eye of sound philosophy, than the pompous bondage of the pageant great. At any rate, I have known negroes who have reasoned against emancipation; and have been credibly informed of others who have petitioned to return to their former slavery! Happily for myself, I neither am, nor ever shall be, a slave-holder.'

To this third part is added a supplement, detailing the various methods of cultivating tobacco in America, according to the practice of former times.

The *fourth part* relates *the progress of the culture and commerce of Tobacco*, containing an account of the first knowlege of this plant. Mr. T. observes that

'It is generally understood that the tobacco plant of Virginia is a native production of that country; but whether it was found in a state of natural growth there, or a plant cultivated by the Indian natives (whose very origin is yet doubtful, and is daily becoming a matter of learned inquiry), is a point of which we are not informed, nor which ever can be farther elucidated than by the corroboration of historical facts and conjectures.

'I have been thirty years ago, and the greatest part of my time during that period, intimately acquainted with the interior parts of America; and have been much in the unsettled parts of the country, among those kinds of soil which are favourable to the culture of tobacco; but I do not recollect one single instance where I have met with tobacco growing wild in the woods, although I have often found a few spontaneous plants about the arable and trodden grounds of deserted habitations.

'This circumstance, as well as that of its being now, and having been, *cultivated* by the natives at the period of European discoveries, inclines towards a supposition that this plant is *not* a native of *North* America, but may possibly have found its way thither with the earliest migrations from some distant land. This might, indeed, have easily been the case from South America, by way of the Isthmus of Panama; and the foundation of the *Chactaw* and *Chickasaw* nations (whom we have reasons to consider as descendants from the *Tlascalians*, and to have migrated to the eastward of the river Mississippi, about the time of the Spanish conquest of Mexico by *Cortez*) seems to have afforded one fair opportunity for its dissemination.

'The

'The first knowlege which the *English* may be supposed to have of this plant, seems to be deducible from the report of Sir John Hawkins in July 1565, who says, that "The Floridians, when they travel, have a kind of herb dried, which, with a cane and an earthen cup in the end, with fire and the dried herbs put together, do sucke thorow the cane the smoke thereof, which smoke satisfieth their hunger, and therewith they live foure or five dayes without meat or drinke, and this all the Frenchmen used for this purpose: yet do they holde opinion withall, that it causeth water and fleame to void from their stomacks." It is not clear to me, however, that this fumid preparation was tobacco, as Mr. Hakluyt has set it down; for the Indians smoke much of a bark which they scrape from the *killiconick*, an aromatic shrub, somewhat resembling the willow; and have also a preparation made with this and *sumach* leaves, or sometimes with the latter mixed with tobacco.'

The author then relates the primitive trade in this article, and the first legislative interposition in regulating its culture and commerce. So important was it formerly deemed, that, says Mr. T. 'the custom of passing tobacco current in payments had so far obtained ground, that the parson made no scruple of receiving this luxurious article for preaching; or the clerk for bawling out amen! and that the military officer thought it no way dishonourable to his profession to draw his pay in this specific article of traffic.' He afterward remarks:

'I find amongst the colonial records about this period, 1651, various provincial acts for making tobacco a legal tender from individual to individual, as well as in discharge of public obligations: such indeed was the smoking spirit of the times, that he who kept a public house was compelled to sell a dinner or a draught of beer for an equivalent in tobacco leaves; and his tavern rates were regulated by the courts of justice in pounds of tobacco, a bill of which was publicly exposed in his house for the information of his guests. It is easy to trace, from this foundation, the primitive cause for rendering tobacco the medium of value in the payment of costs of suit, parish and county dues, and many other public demands of a like nature, which continued to be appendages of the regal jurisdiction until the period of the American revolution.'

Mr. T. now descends from the antient to the modern history of the tobacco trade, particularizing the amount of the exports from the United States of America, from the year 1789 to 1798.

The *fifth part* respects the tobacco trade of Great Britain, which includes a great variety of particulars; and the *sixth part* details the culture and commerce of this plant, according to Mr. Anderson. An appendix treats on the increase and diminution of officers in the tobacco department of the customs of England, from the year 1782 to 1797.

Much as Mr. T. has collected on this subject, with the aid of extracts, supplements, and appendixes,—*necdum finitus Orestes.*—We are promised another *whiff*.

Mo-y. ART.

ART. VII. *The Divine Origin of Prophecy illustrated and defended,* in a Course of Sermons preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1800, at the Lecture founded by John Bampton, M. A. Canon of Salisbury. By the Rev. George Richards, M. A. Vicar of Bampton, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

As the professed object of the Bampton Lecture is " to confirm and establish the Christian faith," the present lecturer has chosen a subject which embraces the immediate design of the founder, and which opens a most spacious and instructive field to the inquiring mind. Prophecy is one of the two great pillars by which the truth of revealed religion is supported. Infidels have made a thousand attempts to subvert it, and learned believers have been equally strenuous in manifesting its unshaken stability. Mr. Richards is therefore obliged to traverse ground which has been repeatedly occupied: but, though novelty was out of his power, he has the merit of well arranging the different branches of his subject, and placing it in a clear point of view. If he be not critical, he is eloquent; and he ' brings forwards a series of such facts, and such observations grounded on facts, as appear peculiarly calculated to convince the serious and impartial inquirer, of the divine origin of one of the principal evidences by which our holy religion is confirmed.'

In the first of these nine sermons, the author, after some preliminary and explanatory remarks, exhibits his design in the following syllabus, or summary:

' It will be my object to direct the attention of the student in sacred literature to the discovery of the most striking characteristics, by which Prophecy is distinguished. Of these characteristics, some are indispensably requisite for the proper support of this testimony; and others, though not absolutely essential, are yet eminently important, and peculiarly calculated to strengthen our confidence in Revelation, and to effect in every candid mind an unalterable persuasion of its truth.

' There are various circumstances, which, in tracing Prophecies from their delivery to their completion, must come under the consideration of the Theological scholar. He renders himself acquainted with the general nature of Prophecy, the conduct and condition of the Prophets, the peculiarities of the several predictions, and the relative situations of the countries and persons concerned either in the delivery, or the accomplishment, together with a variety of important circumstances attending the several pretenders to divine inspiration in heathen nations. This enlarged knowledge of the several parts of the subject will present to his view a number of these characteristics, which, as I have already observed, contribute additional force to the argument, and place in a stronger point of view the divine nature of Jewish and Christian Prophecy. When it has been clearly demon-

strated, that there is a co-incidence, which it is morally impossible that either chance or human ability could so invariably produce, between the predictions, which were uttered, and the events, in which they were fulfilled, though, in some instances, the reality of their divine origin does not, perhaps, become actually more certain; yet it is rendered, by a knowledge of these distinguishing marks, more striking, and more forcible in producing conviction in the mind. When a simple narrative of facts, establishing an allegation, has been submitted to the opinion of the Jurors, their judgment may be quickened, and their confidence strengthened, by remarks, judiciously made upon the long train of attending circumstances. What before was indisputable, then becomes more palpably certain.

'To this particular part of the subject I propose to limit my enquiries, and shall endeavour to prove,

'That the events foretold were frequently REMOTE, were described with MINUTENESS, were sometimes NOVEL, and were very NUMEROUS:

'That in the age of the respective Prophets, by whom they were predicted, they must have appeared often IMPROBABLE, and sometimes the exact REVERSE of what might have been reasonably EXPECTED:

'That, in numerous instances, the subjects of the predictions were peculiarly UNFAVOURABLE to the WORLDLY VIEWS of the Prophets, and the CONTRARY to those which, it is reasonable to suppose, IMPOSTORS would have chosen:

'That there is a PROPRIETY and CONSISTENCY in all the parts of Prophecy, constituting ONE GREAT AND HARMONIOUS SCHEME, which it seems morally impossible, that the Prophets could have imparted to it, if they had not been really inspired:

'That the general CONDUCT of the Prophets is INEXPLICABLE upon HUMAN PRINCIPLES, and can only be satisfactorily accounted for by an acknowledgement of their inspiration:

'And lastly, That from the MEANS which they employed, and the END which they pursued, from the circumstances attending the ORIGIN and TERMINATION of sacred Prophecy, and from the PRESENT SITUATION of a considerable portion of mankind, affording a SENSIBLE DEMONSTRATION of the prescience of the ancient Prophets, a strong presumptive argument may be derived in favour of their pretensions to a divine Revelation.'

In the subsequent discourses, Mr. Richards regularly pursues the plan here laid down. One lecture is wholly occupied in discussing the present astonishing condition of the Jewish people, which the preacher considers as a standing miracle illustrating the truth of revelation; and he concludes his observations with these pertinent inferences:

'The miraculous nature of the situation in which the Jews are placed, might perhaps be intended by the great Disposer of all human events, as an additional and most powerful incentive to faith. In order to aid the imperfections of his creatures, he may graciously have

have ordained, that the people, through whom his divine will has been revealed, should be distinguished, through their whole history, by remarkable deviations from the ordinary course of their fellow creatures. The ancient Prophets, in order to impress the Israelites with an entire conviction of their divine mission, frequently accompanied their solemn revelations with an act of preternatural power. In conformity with the same principle, it may benevolently be designed, that the modern Christian should be roused to a bolder confidence in his religion, by beholding, as it were, a continued miracle displayed on its behalf.

'The present astonishing condition of the Jews is further calculated to strengthen and illustrate the testimonies, recorded in the sacred annals, of a more immediate display of signs and mighty wonders in their favour during ancient times. Though we no longer view the water bursting from the rock, or the land enveloped at noon in the gloomy shades of night; yet we cannot but implicitly assent to the testimony of such supernatural appearances, when we see the whole Jewish nation now existing under circumstances inexplicable by human causes, and opposite to all the established principles of society.

'Again, it may be graciously intended for our benefit, that, in the present distressful state of the chosen people, we should behold an example of divine justice faithfully coinciding with our natural conceptions respecting the attributes of the Deity.'

Mr. Richards contends for the double meaning of some of the antient predictions; and his mode of accounting for their double sense, if it be not quite convincing, is at least ingenious:

'The double meanings, which many of the predictions convey, naturally result from the double office of the prophets. Employed upon two dispensations, it might naturally be supposed, that they would frequently intermingle them; that, though speaking more particularly upon the first, they would look forward to the second, and hold it constantly in view; that, glowing with the twofold conception, they would confound in one picture dissimilar images, which could never unite in a single person, or a single event; and would represent by one expression such circumstances common to both, as may not unreasonably be expected to occur in two œconomies, subservient the one to the other, both proceeding from the same God, and both conducing to the same end.'

An observation is made respecting the language of the antient prophets, in Serm. 6. which we wish that the preacher himself would review. He says that 'it is not vague,' and yet he observes that 'it is, in most instances *highly figurative*, and frequently *hyperbolical*.' (P. 225.)

The predictions of the Hebrew prophets are contrasted with the oracles and pretended prophecies of the idolatrous heathen; and while Mr. R. points out their respective characters, he requests the infidel to reflect on the different systems to which they severally belonged; remembering that the oracles of the heathen

heathen countenanced idolatry and the grossest vices under the idea of religion, but that the Jewish prophets inculcated the noblest sentiments of the Deity, established piety on the basis of divine truth, and exhorted to repentance and virtue.

These sermons are well written; they display the abilities of the author, and they are calculated to impress the reader. Mo.y.

ART. VIII. *New Picture of Paris.* By M. Mercier. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 460. in each Vol. 16s. Boards. Symonds. 1800.

As the writings of Mercier abound with sprightly and original reflections, we expected that a translation of his late work (of which see an account, M. R. vol. 30. N. S. p. 572) would speedily appear on our table. The humane and liberal sentiments, also, which his former publications have displayed, must make readers in general desirous of learning his opinion of the French revolution, of the characters which have figured in it, of the interesting events with which it has been so fatally pregnant, and of its settled tendency respecting the French people and the world at large. Though a staunch republican, and a member of the Convention, Mercier was one of those who did not vote for the death of the King; and he speaks with the most pointed indignation and reprobation of the cruel tyranny of Robespierre, and of that series of horrible crimes which must ever remain a dreadful blot on the history of the revolution. His pages contain a variety of anecdotes, he had enjoyed many opportunities of ascertaining facts, and he appears to be an honest and amiable man; his statements, therefore, though perhaps not meriting implicit confidence, ought to be fairly contrasted with the accounts of other writers, and which bear a different character.

It was impossible for us, in our account of the French work, to quote even the titles of its numerous chapters; and this will not be expected from us now, in noticing the translation of it, which contains 276 sections, or five more than were given in that edition of the original which came under our examination. Suffice it to observe that Mercier's reflections extend to a vast variety of subjects; and that every English reader, who admires the exercise of thought, will be gratified, if not instructed, by these excursions of a superior intellect. In addition to the passages which we translated from the French, we shall select two or three from the volumes before us.

In allusion to his former work intitled *L'An* 2440, M. Mercier thus speaks of himself as plunged in the midst of the bloody revolutionary vortex:

'I, who

'I, who under the reign of kings, and in the face of their thrones, built the vessel of a republic, but which did not sail in a sea of blood, and had not Septembrisers for pilots: I, who knew that it is to that cowardly swarm of writers, apologists of those horrors, that we owe the universal stupor of the nation prostrate before a band of ruffians, a sight more painful, more afflicting than the dissolution of worlds; overwhelmed by all that I have seen or heard, and dumb with horror, I have only been able to confide to paper the sensations which tortured me. But if indignation against crimes hitherto unknown in history, if the contempt which we feel for that despotism of the mob which it was their intention to restore, can inspire ability, I will paint them. I will describe those days in which anarchy paraded its vagabond standards, those days in which the philosopher was forced to repent what he had written; in which his silence was a subject of condemnation, because he was then afraid to emit new truths; those days which will never perish in the memory of man, and which they would willingly efface, as if history was not here below the first chastisement which eternal justice inflicts on guilty man.'

He thus describes his state of mind while the Convention was deliberating on the fate of the King:

'In great political affairs, refinement and dissimulation bring about events directly contrary to those which were intended. I was of opinion, that no cunning was necessary, and superior to fear, and firm in my principles, I separated myself on this occasion from the Girondines, whom I had always loved and esteemed. I voted against the appeal to the people, declaring myself with the same frankness against the pain of death.

'The examination of this question gave me a fever for eight and forty hours, and made volumes of reflections pass through my head. I fell sick; and having, I think, discovered the true point of view, I do not conceal my opinion, that those who voted differently have committed *a political blunder.* Probably they had not made the same exertions to come to the solution of this great problem, which nevertheless will be finally decided for posterity, by the pen of some future Tacitus. As for myself, I have done my duty as a man, and a legislator; and I do it still as a free and independent writer.'

We add the following circumstances, which we believe are not generally known, respecting the last moments of the unfortunate Louis XVI.

'Is it indeed the same individual, crowned and consecrated at Rheims, mounted on a raised flooring, surrounded by all the nobility kneeling at his feet, hailed by a thousand acclamations, adored almost as a god, whose look, and voice, and gesture, were as so many orders; he who was surrounded with honours and enjoyments; in short, separated as it were from the rest of mankind, is it really the same man whom I see handled by four of the executioner's helpers, and his clothes stript off with violence; whose voice is drowned by the noise of the drum, tied to a plank, still struggling, and receiving, *so ill prepared, the stroke of the guillotine, that he has not his neck, but the hinder part of his head, and the jaw, horribly dissevered?*"——

'*It appears that Louis the XVIth had some hope even to the last moment; for it is certain, that he flew into a passion, and struggled with five or six of the executioners.* He spoke for some little time, and pretty loud.

'It is pretended that it was the player Dugazon, who, without the intervention of Santerre, ordered, as if it were the command of the general, the beating of the drums. Religion seems also to have assisted the King in this horrible passage from the throne to the scaffold, and the words of his confessor were sublime. "*Go, son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!*'

The death of Condorcet is here stated to have been the consequence of hunger, and not of poison, to which it has hitherto been ascribed.

Protestant readers may wish to see this author's chapter intitled *Catholic Priests*. It is as follows:

'These innovators are the Protestants, who profess the religion of Enoch, Elias, Abraham, and Christ.

'Pure and simple homage rendered to the Supreme Being, the rewarder of virtue, and the avenger of crimes: songs of gratitude, in which they celebrate an active Providence which watches over the happiness of mankind; a course of practical morality, stript of the dryness of precepts; man continually placed in the presence of a heavenly judge, his own conscience; the duties of the citizen, and the public man, explained with conciseness; instruction mingled with harmonious music, elevating the hearts of the worshippers towards heaven; and relieving the mind from the attention which it has given to the teaching of the minister; this is what the catholic priest calls an impious innovation.

'To the probability of the rapid propagation of the worship of the Protestants, is joined the necessity of recurring to religious ideas, of putting aside whatever there is mysterious or unintelligible in dogmas, in order to preserve in all their purity those principles, those moral institutions which have no limits, inasmuch as they embrace every thing which can extirpate vice, prevent crimes, and encourage virtue.'

Though this translation of so interesting a work cannot fail to gratify the contemplative reader, he will perceive in it abundant errors of phraseology. In the preface, the words *Réve s'il en fut jamais*, are translated 'a dream, if it has ever been so,' instead of *a dream if ever there was one;* and we have marked also the following objectionable expressions: the '*gross* Monsieur'—'*pallying*'—'*tactitions*'—'*cynism*'—'*amalgate*'—'a *fruitless* scene of most terrible calamities'—'*the squared house* at Nismes,'—'*day-workmen*'—'consigned *in* a manuscript'—'*mechanician*'—'we will never *compose* with tyranny'—'*coercitive* law'—'odalisks'—'he *broke* Bonaparte's commission'—'wine not *comprehending* brandy'—'that of the evening is spirituous, sharpened by brandy or spirits of wine, and sometimes impregnated with *dead cat* to give it body'—'*triumphant*

'*triumphant* arches'—'decently *violated*,' for veiled—'epidemy,' &c. &c.

These mistakes and novelties of expression, with innumerable other inelegancies and Gallicisms, induce us to suspect that this version has been executed by a foreigner; and we point them out for the purpose of inducing him to improve himself in a language which he appears to have studied with assiduity, but in which he has not yet attained correctness. Mo-y.

ART. IX. *Erratics:* By a Sailor; containing Rambles in Norfolk, and elsewhere. In which are interspersed, some Observations on the late Attempts to revive the Cromwellian Observance of the Sabbath. Together with some Hints on the present pernicious Method of burying the Dead, and a Remedy proposed. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Ogilvy and Son. 1800.

THOUGH presenting themselves as the flights of a lively and wandering imagination, we find these *Erratics* abounding in shrewd observations and well-digested ideas. The author has, indeed, made a strange mixture of the ludicrous and the serious; for he changes his subject with great facility; and on whatsoever topic he employs himself, his vivacity is unabated. A few short extracts, we imagine, will not be unacceptable to our readers.

The question of preference between a town life and a country life is determined in the following manner:

'After all, then, it seems, that in rustic tranquillity, remote from the toil and turmoil of a crowded metropolis, far from both the splendors and the stenches of the town, true and genuine enjoyment is alone to be found: so, indeed, says the resident '*in populous cities pent.*'—But (cries the husbandman in his fields) I long to taste the joys of a London life, the endless and ever gay varieties of Bond-street bustle; I pant to change these rows of oaks and elms for streets of brilliant lamps; and the constant clackings of that neighbouring mill for the rattlings and clatterings of coaches.—Perhaps, my old friend, the truth lies somewhere between the two; confinement in a town gives a zest to country excursions; a seasonable rustication returns a man with a better relish for town avocations; therefore, kind Heaven, I say, grant me the power to change one for the other as often as I please!'

The most prominent characteristics of the '*Norfolcians*,' the writer observes, are habitual cleanliness, and a strong peculiarity of dialect. On the first he bestows the praise to which it is so well intitled; and their provincial dialect he thus describes:

'This same Norfolk brogue offends principally from its *monotony* rather than from any twang or violent emphasis or accent: it has not the deep northern *burr* of Durham, the *buzz* of *Somersetshire* and

the west, nor the slovenly slip-slop of Sussex; it has nothing of the w^d v, or the v^d w of the Cockney: it has less nerve than even the madrigal *sing song* of its neighbouring Suffolk; the *drone* of the Lancashire bagpipe is quick elastic *alerto* to it; it is all sameness, tameness; insipidity, frigidity—water-gruel without salt,—chalk-talk: *caput mortuum.*'

This account he has illustrated by a dialogue in 'Original vulgar Norfolk,' which he has accompanied by an *English translation.*

We shall now extract a part of the author's description of the approach to Norwich from Yarmouth:

'Dear Sir, 'Yarmouth, June, 1800.

'Your old friend T— and I are just returned from a very gratifying trip to the ancient *capital* of this country. *Norwich*, the industrious, commercial, and prosperous Norwich, is certainly a very lovely spot. I know of nothing in any country I have visited upon service or pleasure, that is superior to the view from its *Castle-hill;* that is, for the eye (I would be understood to mean) which can be delighted and contented with the picturesque of mild and tranquil scenery. Bolder prospects, awfully loaded with masses of monstrous mountains and rough ridges of rugged rocks, will better suit the taste that demands gigantic magnificence; but the soft and placid scenery which surrounds this happy seat of affluence and industry, is calculated to correspond with, and to create a continual serenity of spirits, the habitual harmony of the life of man. A winding and a verdant vale, through which, in serpentine elegance, tardily flows the placid and unruffled *Wensum;* which vale has gentle risings on either side, flourishing in all the prolific perfection of scientific and systematic management, forms a considerable part of the view in the ride from Yarmouth to Norwich.

'The latter half of this little journey is rich in good husbandry and produce, even in this county immemorially and proverbially agricultural: crops of wheat, luxuriant productions of clover, and turnip-fields of unrivalled cultivation, decorate this scene of rural beauty and plenty.

'In the earlier part, indeed, we passed some tame and meadowed flats, here called *Dams*, which, although less productive of graniferous profit, still do their duty to the proprietors of them by the various and valuable succours of fuel; turf, peat, furze, flag, and sedge: and, if these rude marshes furnish substitutes for sea-coal and wood, the little lakes, here denominated *Broads*, are very productive of fish and wild fowl: these shallow lakes are not inaptly thus termed *Broads;* they are the consequence of the level equality of the land through which their rivers have their course; which, traversing an even surface, and meeting with few obstacles, the streams are glassily smooth, and merely, upon running over a hollow of meadow of greater or less extent, leave a sufficiency of water to fill them, and constantly renew its supply.

'The occupiers of middling farms to the right and left of this road, are perhaps, take them for all in all, as good husbandmen as

are to be found in Britain; sufficient theorists for experiment and speculation, unbigotted to ancient and stubborn habits, and yet too guarded for rash risk and incautious adventure.

'As we more nearly approached the city, we entered upon a still more decided track of obviously-excellent agriculture. The *Blofield Hundred* is a paragon of produce: the weedless crop here attests the hand of a master: the eye, although glutted with an immensity of produce, views everywhere the distinctness of œconomical distribution: strong in its propitious soil, the upright, vivid, clear, and perpendicular stalk, competent to sustain its promising weight and future wealth of ear, justifies the skill of the grower in the seasoning, the sowing, and the setting of his grain.

'If the father who spareth the rod has been stated to be the spoiler of his child, so the farmer who withholdeth the *hoe*, may be said to ruin his turnips: to see expert labourers, however, in that favourite and lucrative production of the fields of Norfolk, cutting away hundreds and leaving only distant units, would induce a spectator unaccustomed to the proceeding to dread an entire annihilation of that important crop: but fully adequate is the number of plants left to fill every space at the full size of their maturity, and then matchless in magnitude and exquisite in nutriment, they fatten to the most generous size some of the best bullocks Smithfield boasts, and feed some of the finest flavoured mutton Leadenhall exhibits.

'Some of the views in this division of the country are pleasingly attractive to a spectator that does not require the majestic or enormous: many parts to which we zig-zagged from the main road, are sufficiently embellished with wood and the slowly winding *Yare*, serpentizing through the valley with a useful, although not very numerous navigation of small craft, gives the solidity of satisfaction in the conviction of profit, added to the pleasure of contemplating its beauties. This valley has evident proofs of having formerly been covered by the sea: and here we had once more the pleasure to behold a profitable portion of *terra firma* rescued from the invasion and dominion of that element. *T*— and I, who have often admired, mile by mile, the beautiful and well-cultivated vale snatched by human skill and exertion from the Mediterranean Sea, between *Leghorn* and *Pisa*; who have beheld the abundant crop and stately tree flourishing on that spot where crept the coral, and gambolled the inhabitants of the deep, were enchanted by this little renewal of past gratification: there is, however, a very material difference, in one respect, between the two circumstances; for, whereas, in the Tuscan instance, the exclusion of the sea proceeded from the sublime ideas and the able operations of *man*; the departure of the waters in the Norfolk example, was the performance of *Nature*, as the *North Sea*, in the caprice of its evolutions withdrew itself. I ought, however, to add, what I write and you will read with conscious pride, that the valuable *Italian Level* above mentioned, was detached from the kingdom of Neptune, and transferred to the sickle of Ceres, by the powers and genius of an *Englishman!*'

A considerable portion of this little work relates to the effect of Sunday newspapers, and the mode of interment

which prevails in this country. The observations on these subjects are addressed to Lord B*******; though, on the former of the two, the author does not agree in opinion with the noble lord. He is an advocate for Sunday chearfulness, and thinks that 'the blessed *day of rest* should not be perverted to a day of *stupidity and gloom*, more depressing to the mind, and more destructive to the health, than the toils of the week are exhausting to the spirits and the body.'—In his remarks on sepulture, he takes notice of the horrid custom and 'villany of plundering the church-yards of their dead;' and also of 'the immense groupes of dead crowded together in the consecrated precincts of our temples of devotion,' open graves, &c. He praises the present sovereign of Denmark, for being the first monarch who has banished the dead from the capital of his dominions; and he strongly recommends burning, as being 'an anti-pestilential annihilation of mortal remains, from which many benefits would accrue.' To promote the introduction of such a practice, the author proposes the formation of a committee; and he suggests to Lord B. and Mr. W**********, that they, with other men of eminence who have turned their thoughts to the subject, should become members of such a committee. As a secretary, he recommends himself; and we have not the least doubt that he would fill the office ably and zealously.

The style of this little work is marked by an earnestness, sometimes a vehemence, of expression. There are likewise a few points against which we could object; but the author's good humour communicates itself to us, and we are little inclined to censure. Perhaps no pen can *run riot* within limits wholly unexceptionable: but such is the spirit of this performance, that, whether we approve or disapprove, we feel entertained.

It cannot escape observation, notwithstanding the author has clothed himself in a jacket and trowsers *, and in defiance of the irregularity (or rather total neglect) of arrangement in his matter, that his manner and language are not those of an inexperienced writer.

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* Respecting the denomination of a *Sailor*, by which he has designated himself, he observes in his *Introduction;* 'Having been many years in a department of the British navy, the writer is justified in calling himself a *Sailor*, although he does not affect to be a *Seaman:* his life has been more than commonly *Errátic*, as chance has made him a spectator of a great variety of services in different parts of the globe.'

Capt. B...y.

ART. X. Dr. Campbell's *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 273.]

WITH pleasure we resume the consideration of this judicious and instructive performance; the Second Volume of which introduces us to scenes nearer to our own times, and discusses questions which still divide the Christian world. As the topics here treated are more generally known, they may not be so curious as those which preceded them: but the author continues to be equally judicious and alike impartial.

Lecture XIV. the first of this volume, consists of reflections on the controversies of the primitive church; which meet with severe but not unmerited treatment. In the next discourse, Dr. C. draws a representation of those assemblies in antient times which were called *councils*, and to which the Christian world was wont so reverently to bow;—a representation that is somewhat ludicrous, but is not without the support of facts:

'Suppose that a single province in the empire had been visited with the pestilence, and that the distemper raged with so much violence, that few in that neighbourhood escaped; suppose further, that the ruling powers had, in their great wisdom, determined to summon, from all the provinces infected and uninfected, the whole medical tribe, physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, sound and diseased indiscriminately, in order to consult together, and fix upon the most effectual method of extirpating the latent poison; would it have been difficult to foresee the consequences of a measure so extraordinary? The diseased in that assembly would quickly communicate the infection to the sound, till the whole convention, without exception, were in the same wretched plight; and when all should be dispersed and sent home again, they would return to their respective countries, breathing disease and death wherever they went; so that the malignant contagion which had, at first, afflicted only a small part, would, by such means, be rendered universal, and those who ought to have assisted in the cure of the people, would have proved the principal instruments of poisoning them. Exactly such a remedy were the decisions of councils, to the plague of wrangling, at that time not less terrible, if its consequences were duly weighed.'

The author then goes on to state, in this and the XVIth lecture, the measures of policy by which spiritual Rome rose to power. This artful see never decided on the theological disputes, which were so frequent in the east, till her weight was sure of preponderating;—the ignorance prevalent in her communion secured her against troubles from new heresies;—to encourage appeals, she gave judgment uniformly in favour of the appellants;—and the heresies which she fostered did not, like those of the east, relate to fruitless and unintelligible questions, but had a tendency either to increase her power, or to fill

her coffers. The following passage shews the spirit of the times:

'It was become a popular and plausible cloak, for the pride and ambition of churchmen, that they acted out of a principle of zeal for the dignity of the see with which they were entrusted, that is, said they, for the honour of the founder. This was thought to be of great weight, if the founder happened to be a saint in the calendar; of greater still, if he was, or (which is all one) if he was believed to have been, a scripture saint, or an evangelist; and greatest of all, if an apostle. They acted on the supposition, that they could not more effectually ingratiate themselves with their patron, though in heaven, than by exalting the church he had erected or endowed upon the earth, above the churches erected or endowed by others, and, consequently, in exalting him above his fellow saints. They, in this way, were disposed to excuse their interferences with one another, thinking it reasonable, that each should do his best for the saint to whom he was most indebted, and who, from being the founder, commonly became the tutelar saint of his diocese, or parish. And then, as to the idea they supposed those saints to entertain of the dignity of their respective churches, it was altogether secular, or suited to the apprehensions of mere men of the world. This dignity consisted not at all in the virtue and piety of the parishioners, but in the opulence and pre-eminencies of the clergy, in the extent and populousness of the parish or diocese, the magnificence of the churches, sacred utensils, and vestments, particularly the rank, the titles, the privileges, the prerogatives, and the riches of the pastor.'

Lectures XVII. and XVIII. pursue the same subject.

Lect. XIX. states the papal inroads on episcopal jurisdiction by the grants of exemptions, and by the legislative authority which the Pope claimed over the universal church; and the XXth discourse exposes the curious arguments of Lainez the jesuit, in support of papal usurpation.

Lect. XXI. and XXII. contain observations on the council of Trent. Among the instances of address by which the agents of Rome signalized themselves in this memorable assembly, none is more remarkable than the feint played off against temporal princes. The ambassadors of different potentates having incessantly urged on the papal ministers the reformation of the court of Rome; these ministers, in order to stop such importunities, presented to the Council the orders of the Pope to take into consideration the reformation of temporal princes. This design was never meant to be executed: but it alarmed kings, and it prevented their insisting on points disagreeable to the See of Rome;—the sole end which that artful power had in view.—To shew how little the Roman church is naturally a friend to regal authority, we shall lay before the reader the heads of the famous decrees in the bill proposed by the Council:

'The

'The council, besides the statutes enacted for reforming persons ecclesiastical, have judged it their duty to reform also secular persons of those abuses, which have been introduced against the immunities of the church, confident that princes will acquiesce, and cause due obedience to be rendered to the clergy. To this end they are admonished, before other things, to oblige their magistrates, delegates, and other temporal lords, to render their pastors that obedience, which those princes themselves are bound to perform to the sovereign pontiff; and for this purpose anew enforces whatever has been decreed by the sacred canons, and the imperial laws in favour of ecclesiastical immunities, which ought to be observed by all under pain of anathema. The principal decrees are the following: that persons ecclesiastical, even though their clerical title should be doubtful, and though they themselves should consent, cannot, under any pretext, even that of public utility, be judged in a secular judicatory. Even in cases of notorious assassination, or other excepted cases, their prosecution must be preceded by a declaration of the bishop of the diocese. That in causes spiritual, matrimonial, those of heresy, tithes, &c. civil, criminal, mixed, belonging to the ecclesiastical court, as well over persons as over goods, tenths, &c. pertaining to the church, the temporal judge cannot intermeddle, notwithstanding any appeal, &c.; and those who, in such causes, shall recur to the secular power, shall be excommunicated, and deprived of the rights contended for. Secular men cannot constitute judges in causes ecclesiastical, and clergymen, who shall accept such offices from laymen, shall be suspended from orders, deprived of benefices, and incapacitated. The secular cannot command the ecclesiastical judge not to excommunicate without licence, or to revoke, or suspend, an excommunication fulminated. No king or emperour can make edicts, relating to causes or persons ecclesiastical, or intermeddle with their jurisdiction, or even with the inquisition, but are obliged to lend their arm to the ecclesiastical judges when called on. Rulers may not put their hand to the fruits of vacant benefices, under pretence of custody, protection, &c.; secular persons, who shall accept such offices, shall be excommunicated, and clergmen suspended and deprived. Ecclesiastics shall not be constrained to pay taxes, excise, &c. not even under the name of free gifts, or loans, either for patrimonial goods, or the goods of the church. The letters, sentences, and citations, of the ecclesiastic judges, especially of the court of Rome, shall, immediately on being exhibited, be, without exception, intimated and executed, &c. If there be any doubt that the letters are forged, or that tumults will arise, the bishop, as apostolic delegate, may order the needful precautions. Princes and magistrates shall not quarter their officers, &c. on the houses, or monasteries of ecclesiastics, nor draw thence ought for victuals, or passage money.'

We add some of Dr. Campbell's observations on these articles:

'They are ushered in as pious resolutions to be adopted by the council, for the reformation of princes and secular persons. One is naturally led to expect, that in such a writing, calculated purely to reform the great, their faults will, with Christian freedom, but in the

the spirit of meekness, be animadverted on; that one shall find a just censure on the pride, the luxury, the impiety, the extortion, the envy, the revenge, and the other vices which so often abound among those in high rank and authority; or that one shall see branded with proper severity, that unchristian ambition, which leads sovereigns so often, though fellow-christians in profession, to make war on one another, on the most trivial pretences, to the destruction of one moiety of their subjects, the oppression of the other, and dishonour of the christian name. But not a syllable of these. Was there nothing of this kind, then, among the powers of Europe? Never, perhaps, was there more. Yet this venerable body seemed to think, that there was nothing in their earthly potentates which would need correction, were they sufficiently submissive to their ghostly fathers, the bishops and the priests, that is, in effect, would they but resign to them their whole authority, and consent to become their humble slaves, a virtue, it seems, more successful, in the eyes of their reverences, than charity itself in covering sins.'

The XXIIId Lecture concludes the author's account of the Council, and treats of the order of Cardinals, with the ceremonies observed at the election of a Pope.

The next division of this work states various measures which arose out of the policy of the church, designed to keep the people in ignorance and subjection.

Lecture XXIV. contains much curious matter relating to the practice of the antient church and that of Rome, with respect to heathen and heretical books. We are told that

'Dionysius, bishop of Alexandria, a celebrated doctor, about the year 240, being reproved by his own presbyters, for reading books which they accounted dangerous, found it convenient to plead in his excuse, that his doubts on this head had been removed by a vision, wherewith he had been favoured from heaven, which permitted him to read any book, because he had discernment sufficient to enable him to do it with safety. It was, however, the general opinion in those days, that there was greater danger in the books of pagans, than in those of heretics, which were much more abhorred.

'The reading of the former, the Greek and the Latin books which we now call classics, was more severely censured, not as being intrinsically worse than the other, but because those books were more engaging, and the reading of them was more frequently practised by many christian doctors, through a desire of learning eloquence, and the rules of composition. And, for indulging himself in this practice, Jerom was said to have been either in vision, or in dream, buffeted by the devil. Much about that time, to wit, in the year 400, a council in Carthage prohibited the bishops from reading the books of gentiles, but permitted them to read those of heretics. This is the first prohibition in form of a canon. Nor is there any thing else, on this subject, to be found in the fathers, except in the way of advice, on the general principles of the divine law, as represented above.

'The.

'The books of the heretics, whose doctrine had been condemned by councils, were indeed often, for political reasons, prohibited by the emperors. Thus Constantine prohibited the books of Arius. Arcadius those of the Eunomians and Manichees. Theodosius those of Nestorius, and Martian the writings of the Eutychians. In Spain, king Ricaredo prohibited those of the Arians. Councils and bishops thought it sufficient to declare what books contained doctrine condemned or apocryphal. They proceeded no further, leaving it to the conscience of every one either to avoid them entirely, or to read them with a good intention. After the year 800, the Roman pontiffs, who had usurped the greater part of ecclesiastical government, expressly forbade men to read, nay, gave orders to burn the books whose authors they had condemned as guilty of heresy. Nevertheless, till the age of the reformation, the number of books actually prohibited was but small.'

The succeeding passage is not favourable to the loyalty of the Romish church:

'Indeed, for some ages past, no heresy has appeared so damnable in Italy to the ghostly fathers, to whom the revisal of books is intrusted, as that which ascribes any kind of authority to magistrates, independent of the pope: no doctrine so divine, as that which exalts the ecclesiastical authority above the civil, not only in spiritual matters, but in secular. Nay, the tenet on this subject, in highest vogue with the canonists, is that which stands in direct opposition to the apostle Paul's. The very pinnacle of orthodoxy with those gentlemen is, that the lawful commands of the civil magistrate do not bind the conscience; that our only motive to obedience here is prudence, from fear of the temporal punishment denounced by him; and that, if we have the address to elude his vigilance, and escape the punishment, our disobedience is no sin in the sight of God. It is impossible for any thing to be more flatly contradictory to the doctrine of all antiquity, particularly that of the great apostle, who commands us to be subject to those powers, not only for fear of their wrath, but for conscience sake. It was lucky for Paul, the apostle I mean, not the pope, that he had published his sentiments, on this subject, about 1500 years before that terrible expedient of the *index* was devised. He had, by this means, obtained an authority in the christian world, which Rome herself, though she may, where her influence is greatest, for a time, elude it, cannot totally destroy. Otherwise that missionary of Christ must have long ago had a place in the Index expurgatorius.'

We farther learn that

'Rome has obstructed the progress of knowledge, not only by suppressing altogether books not calculated to favour her views, but by reprinting works, which had too great a currency for them to suppress, mutilated and grossly adulterated. Those editions, when they came abroad, being for the most part neatly, many of them elegantly, printed, and well executed, were ignorantly copied by the printers of other countries, who knew not their defects.'—

'The consequence of the freedom, above related, which has been taken by the court of Rome with christian writers of the early ages, (for it luckily did not answer their purpose to meddle with the works of pagans) has rendered it, at this day, almost impossible to know the real sentiments of many old authors of great name, both ecclesiastics and historians: there being of several of them scarcely any edition extant at present, except those which have been so miserably garbled by the court of Rome, or, which amounts to the same thing, editions copied from those which they had vitiated by their interpolations and corrections.'

To shew the fair dealing of this church, we transcribe a decree of Pope Clement VIII. as quoted by Dr. Campbell: "*In libris catholicorum recentiorum, qui post annum christianæ salutis* 1515 *conscripti sint, si id quod corrigendum occurrit, paucis demptis aut additis emendari posse videatur, id correctores faciendum curent; sin minus, omnino deleatur.*"

In the present age, the importance of another of the claims of Rome, which we shall subjoin, will be readily estimated:

'The pope came at last to claim it as an exclusive privilege, to prohibit, and to license, not for Rome only, and the ecclesiastical state, but for all christendom, at least for all the countries wherein his authority is acknowledged, insisting, that what he prohibits, no prince whatever, even in his own dominions, dares license, and what he licenses, none dares prohibit. The first of these has been generally conceded to him, though not perhaps punctually obeyed.

'The second occasioned a violent struggle in the beginning of the last century, between the pope and the king of Spain, on occasion of a book written by cardinal Baronius, containing many things in derogation of that monarch's government and title, and traducing, with much asperity, many of his ancestors, the kings of Arragon. The book was licensed at Rome, but prohibited in the Spanish dominions. The monarch stood firm in his purpose, and the pope thought fit to drop the controversy, but not to renounce the claim.'

The xxvth lecture details the rise and progress of persecution in the Latin church; and the xxvith gives a similar account of the inquisition, from which very interesting extracts might be made, if our confined pages would permit. Those who declaim against the free spirit of modern times, and describe it as the most pernicious monster which the world ever saw, seem to have forgotten all that the pen of History relates, respecting the conduct and proceedings of sanguinary superstition.

Lecture xxvii. treats of the causes which gave rise to the Reformation. The following anecdote told of Huss is curious:

'It is said, that a picture which Huss has procured, and exhibited to the people, wherein the entry of our Lord into Jerusalem, riding on an ass, attended by his disciples on foot, in a very homely garb, was contrasted by a procession of the pope and cardinals, in their pontifical

cal habits, and magnificently mounted on the finest horses, richly caparisoned, and adorned with gold and silver and jewels, did not a little contribute to excite the indignation of spectators against their spiritual lords, as bearing no resemblance to those meek, humble, and unassuming men, from whom they pretended to derive all their high powers and prerogatives.'

In the XXVIIIth and concluding discourse, the author discusses the progress of the Reformation, and the characters of its leaders.

The extracts which we have made from this work will, perhaps, speak more in its favour than our testimony. The civil history of Europe, down to the present moment, is most intimately connected with its ecclesiastical annals; and the volumes before us are admirably calculated to produce a taste for the study of the latter, and to convince the reader that the subject of them is by no means to be confined to the attention of Theologians. The impartial and philosophical manner in which the author has treated it is highly creditable to him: but it cannot be expected that he should be equally happy and successful on all the topics which come under his notice. There is an interesting view of the Council of Trent, in which neither Dr. Campbell nor any other writer (that we know) has yet considered it. This Council was assembled in consequence of loud, reiterated, and general clamours, at a time when the spirit of reform stalked abroad in all its prime vigour, and when catholic princes and states earnestly sought reformation; yet it does not correct a single substantial abuse, nor concede the slightest article:—nay, even the most odious prerogatives of the popes, which had been opposed and condemned at Pisa, Constance, and Basil, are either openly acknowleged, or tacitly admitted; and the doctrines styled Tramontane become the tenets of the Catholic church, as far as the authority of an ecumenical council, regularly summoned, and which had representatives from every catholic state, could render them such. Thus the ambitious See gained in prerogative what it lost in extent of jurisdiction. Whether this was wise, we do not decide: but the facts, such as we state them, and the causes of them,—with the deep sagacity which saw those causes,—the consummate skill with which they were seized and played off,—and the masterly address shewn throughout the whole business by the able ministers of the Papal court in this assembly,—cannot escape the attentive reader of Fra Paroli's incomparable history; which, though full of small inaccuracies, (all of which are rectified in the notes of his learned French translator, Pere Courayer,) never errs on great points.—On the subject of the Reformation, also, we find nothing very interesting in these lectures.

lectures. We should not, however, state the qualified praise to which these parts are intitled, did we not regard the great mass of the work as deserving very high commendation.

It remains only to observe that the points of ecclesiastical history, so ably treated in these volumes, are few, compared with those which still lie in reserve, to yield fame to those industrious students, who shall investigate them with diligence, and discuss them with impartiality and a philosophic spirit. Should free inquiry again be encouraged among us, knowlege be once more in request, and truth be no longer regarded as dangerous, we shall hope to see this prolific region farther explored, by persons who, in temperament and in other qualifications, may be complimented as resembling the much lamented Principal Campbell.

Jo.

ART. XI. *An Historical Description of Antient and Modern Rome;* also of the Works of Art, particularly in Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting. To which are added, a Tour through the Cities and Towns in the Environs of that Metropolis, and an Account of the Antiquities found at Gabia. Carefully collated with the best Authorities, by J. Salmon, Antiquary, late of Rome. Embellished with beautiful Engravings from Original Drawings. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 10s. Boards. Taylor, Holborn. 1800.

THE historical part of this work, contained in the preface, is well selected, and connected into an entertaining and instructive narrative: but the style is not remarkably elegant, nor always grammatically correct. Yet Rome is, perhaps, the only city on the Continent, in which, during a residence of twelve years, an Englishman might have preserved, or at least not have greatly impaired, his native dialect: for in that capital, whither so many of our nobility, gentry, and artists, follow each other in constant succession, there is more danger of not acquiring Italian sufficient to converse with the natives, than of forgetting how to talk with our countrymen in our own language, to lament the loss of beef, pudding, and porter, and to bewail seclusion from endemial habits!—We can, however, discover that Mr. Salmon has not constantly associated with the natives of Great Britain, nor been an *idle* spectator of Roman remains and Italian works of art; and though his book is not superiorly written, and though many of the fine productions which he mentions and describes are no longer to be found at Rome, yet his catalogue will continue to be a valuable guide to travellers, and particularly to artists, in pointing out for inspection all that Gallic rapacity may still suffer to remain.

Mr.

Mr. Salmon's outline seems much to resemble that of *Roma Antica e Moderna* by Venuti; and though it may have been formed from an actual survey, much trouble of research must have been saved to a subsequent author by the labours of such a precursor. We have long wondered that Venuti's publication, (in 4 vols.) which has been printed above 30 years, has not been translated into English; because it would have been a more certain guide to our countrymen sojourning at Rome, than the crude, hasty, and superficial remarks which occur in most books of travels. The Italian author has kept the antient and the modern parts separate, giving two volumes to each: but in the work before us they are incorporated.

As we must decline to follow Mr. S. closely, having so lately gone over the same ground with Mr. Lumisden, Miss Starke, and the President de Brosses, we shall stop only at such places as still merit peculiar attention on account of beautiful *immoveable* works of art in architecture, Fresco paintings, and Mosaic. Antient sculpture, and pictures by masters of the first class, will henceforth perhaps be vainly sought at Rome: since, though many pictures and some sculpture yet remain in the *churches*, there is too much probability that most of these edifices will be turned into stables, warehouses, workshops, or converted to other secular and ignoble purposes; in which case the architecture will be injured, and the sculpture and paintings removed or destroyed.

St. Peter's and the Vatican, the Ghigi, Borghese, Barberini, Farnese, and other principal palaces, with their contents, have been so often described, together with the churches and other public buildings, that it would be difficult for the most ingenious writer to diffuse an air of novelty over tales so often told: yet it must be allowed that Mr. Salmon has varied his narrative with such details as are not to be found in *every* book. Indeed, we can recollect no descriptive publication in modern times, in which the influence of sacred relics and the miraculous powers of holy men are related with so much gravity and reverence; except in the travels of Udal ap Rhys through Spain and Portugal, forty years ago; who, perhaps, having the fear of the Inquisition before his eyes, thought he could not act more safely for himself in Spain and Portugal, nor more fairly by the reporters of these supernatural accounts, than by hearing them with respect, and publishing them at home without a commentary, neither adding nor suppressing a single circumstance.—In giving the inventory of curious things in the church and monastery of St. Sylvester *in capitè*, (vol. i. p. 33.) Mr. S. tells us that 'among the famous reliques here preserved, is an image of our Saviour, said to be the same as he

he himself sent to king Abagaro in Edessa: also, as is said, the head of St. John the Baptist, from which it has its name, "*in capite.*"

Describing the church of St. Peter *in Vinculis*, we are told;

'The present edifice was built about the year 442, by Eudoxia, wife of Theodosius Emperor of the East, who, having gone on a pilgrimage to visit the holy places of Jerusalem, was presented, by Giovinale, patriarch of that city, with the two chains with which St. Peter was loaded, when imprisoned by Herod, together with other reliques. One of these was sent to Rome by that empress, to her daughter Eudoxia, wife of Valentinian Emperor of the West, who gave it to St. Leo the Great. That pontiff comparing it with the other chain, by which St. Peter was secured in the Mamertine prison in Rome, they miraculously united, and formed but one chain, as is related by Sigebert in his chronicle.'—'On the high altar is kept the miraculous chain, and in the sacristy are many reliques, with ornaments of silver, among which are *the heads* of St. Taurino, St. Costantia, and St. Emerentiana, and *an arm* of St. Agnes.'

In the church and monastery of St. Dominic and St. Sixtus, we are informed, the nuns have 'a picture of Christ, said to be *painted by St. Luke.*'

In the Basilica of St. Laurence, without the walls, is the sepulchre of the titular saint; in which, says Mr. S.,

'The body of St. Stephen, or part of it, was deposited. Of the translation of it we have various accounts, of which the most probable is that of Bede. In 493, Eudoxia, wife of the Emperor Theodosius II. going to Jerusalem, the bishop presented her, among other reliques, with part of the body of St. Stephen, which she brought to Constantinople, and placed in a church she built there. But in 557, being transferred to Rome, Pelagius I. joined it with the body of St. Lawrence; and tradition asserts that the bones of themselves drew to the left to make room for St. Stephen's. Part of the grid-iron is also said to be here preserved, together with a stone on which his body was placed, marked with his blood; the head of the martyrs St. Hippolitus and St. Roman; an arm of St. John, and one of St. Apollonia, a virgin and a martyr, with many other reliques.'—

'The Monastery of the church of the Immaculate Conception, in the Campus Martius, was built for the Basilian nuns, who came from Greece in 750, to avoid the persecutions of Constantine Copronimus, and brought with them, on camels, the body of St. Gregory Nazianzen, the head of St. Quirinus, bishop and martyr, some images of the blessed Virgin, and other reliques. When they passed a small church on this spot, dedicated to the blessed Virgin, the beasts stopped, and refused to go any farther; for which reason the sacred reliques were there deposited, and the monastery and a new church erected in honour of St. Gregory, in which his body was placed.'—

Vol. II.

'On the scite now occupied by the magnificent church of St. Agnes, was the lupanari, or brothel, to which it is supposed the virgin

virgin St. Agnes was conducted, by order of Sempronius, Prefect of Rome, for the purpose of violation; but she being assisted by an angel, the son of the same Prefect fell dead at her feet as he was going to ill-treat her. In compliance, however, with the fervent entreaties of the father, she prayed to God, and he was restored to life. To preserve the remembrance of this miracle, a small church was erected on the same spot, and made parochial.'—

'In the church of St. Mary *Degli Agonizzanti* is said to be preserved the band in which Christ was wrapped, and this is exposed yearly at Christmas.'—(P. 30.)

'The church of St. Mary *Della Consolazione.* Here was an image of the blessed Virgin painted on the wall of an old house in the public street. In 1470 this image was said to have dispensed favours and miracles to the people, who resorted to it with devotion; and with the money collected on the occasion this church was built, under the title of the Consolation.'—

'St. Paul *alle tre Fontane.* Here are three churches dedicated to that saint. The third of which is erected on the spot where St. Paul was beheaded, and in which are the three fountains said to have miraculously sprung up on the three spots his head moved to, after it was taken off.'—(P. 76.)

Basilica of St. Paul. 'The crucifix in one of the chapels, that was affixed to a pilaster in the cross aisle, since removed to this place, is said to have spoke to St. Brigit; and here was placed her statue, sculptured by Maderno.' p. 79. This circumstance is mentioned again, p. 165: 'The crucifix, in the next chapel, is held in great veneration, from a tradition that it spoke several times to St. Brigit, when she was praying before it.'

At p. 115, we are told that 'near the birth of Christ, a prodigious fountain of oil rose, which ran for a day towards the Tiber, as we read in various respectable authors, on the spot where the Basilica of St. Mary in Trastevere was afterwards built, and though not much noticed by the Gentiles, the Christians considered the spot as distinguished by God for the miraculous oil.'

'The church of St. James *Scossciacavalli*, took its name in the time of St. Helen, mother of Constantine, when that empress had conveyed from Palestine to Rome two remarkable stones, on one of which Abraham laid his son Isaac to sacrifice him to God, the other on which Christ was placed by the blessed Virgin when presented in the temple, and which she intended to place in St. Peter's; but the horses arriving on this spot, would not proceed any farther, though severely whipped and forced by the drivers; from which circumstance a church was erected here, and the stones placed in it, and from this it took its name.'

Many other similar passages, which we had marked, might be quoted. We have elsewhere prodigies performed by St.

Filippo Neri, by St. Peter's *chair*, by a *column* from the temple of Solomon, 'on which Christ leaned when preaching in the temple'; and various sacred relics preserved in the Vatican palace: such as 'the head of St. Laurence; part of the sponge held to the lips of Chriſt; one of the thorns he was crowned with; a piece of the cross; and a vestment of St. Prisca, who suffered martyrdom in the second century.'——Perhaps, however, even our most pious readers have had enough on the subject of these legendary prodigies:—yet we have nothing more *extraordinary* to offer from the work before us. If such a list of relics had been invented by a Calvinist, in order to ridicule and disgrace Roman Catholic credulity and superstition, he could not have done it more effectually. Such accounts may have been seriously read at Rome or in Spain before the Revolution, while the inhabitants revered whatever they supposed to have belonged to holy persons: but at no time would they escape ridicule in a country of heretics, like our own.

The catalogues of paintings and sculpture which Rome formerly possessed is, we believe, very ample and accurate: but, till the author comes to the plundered *Belvidere*, he seldom mentions her losses. In giving the inventory of the Vatican palace, indeed, after having mentioned the scarce head of *Brutus* the first Roman consul, and the statue of one of the twelve Camilli who saved Rome from fire in the time of the Republic, (both of bronze, with silver eyes,) Mr. S. tells us, in a note, that 'both these are now *removed* to Paris:'—a gentle word for *theft*.

The Villa Albani is described as if still subsisting, and not despoiled of all its inestimable treasures of antient arts; of which no more now remain than could be found in the palace of old king Priam at Troy.

Mr. Salmon appears not to have known that, while *removing* the celebrated *Taking down from the Cross* of Daniel de Voltana in the Church of *la Trinita de Monti*, by order of the French commissioners, some *brigands* of their nation were so eager to seize the brazen and copper cramps and nails by which the frame was fixed, and which was extremely ponderous, that it fell down, and that exquisite painting was rent in such a manner that not a single face or figure remained entire!

The St. Cecilia of Raphael at Bologna, having been painted on wood which was worm-eaten, and being ordered to be *removed* to Paris, was found on its arrival to be crushed, pulverized, and totally ruined!

The Vatican Library is amply described, without a single word concerning the books and MSS. lately *removed* to Paris: but we have a melancholy list of *removals* from the *Belvidere* gardens

gardens and Casino. This we shall give in the author's own words; and it will reflect no disgrace on the taste and judgment of the French commissioners, whatever ideas it may generate concerning the rapacity of their employers.

'The statues of Apollo, the group of the Laocoon, Antinous, the Torso, Hercules Commodus, Demosthenes, Trajan, Posidippus, Menander, Phocian, Cleopatra, Hygeia, Sextus Chæroneus, an Amazon, Venus, Adonis, Paris, Dioscobulus, Sardanapalus, Augustus, a statue said to be Cæsar, Tiberius, Meleager, the Nile, the Tiber, Ceres, Melpomene, Apollo, and the nine Muses: the busts of Antinous, Adrian, Jupiter Serapis, Comedy, Tragedy, the Ocean, Cato and Porcia, Menelaus, Minerva, the large vase of basaltes with masks, three candelabras, three altars, one with ornaments consecrated to Apollo, two Sphinxes, and two curule chairs, are now *removed* to Paris.'

Luckily, architecture, the Fresco paintings of Raphael, Giulio Romano, John d'Udine, Pierin del Vaga, and others; with basso-relievos of stucco, animals, arabesques, small ornamental figures in grotesque, festoons, landscapes, and Mosaic from designs of Raphael and other great masters; are *fixtures*;—and many churches, and some palaces, containing works of artists not to be found in Vasari, Passari, or Venuti, but mentioned by Mr. Salmon, may have hitherto, perhaps, escaped plunder by their obscurity.

In enumerating the busts and monuments of illustrious poets, painters, and musicians, placed and erected in the Pantheon, the author has omitted to mention Corelli, Sacchini, and Metastasio.

As Mr. S. has not reduced the Palm to English measures, most of his readers will find themselves in doubt, confusion, and uncertainty. Palms vary in different parts of Italy; and the Roman palm, which is equal to 8,779 English inches, has a fraction that is embarrassing to unscientific calculators.

The plates of this work, twenty-one in the first volume, and seventeen in the second, contain representations of the principal antient buildings, churches, &c. with a plan of Rome; which are well designed, and neatly engraven.

On the whole, the long residence of the author at Rome, once (as he justly calls it) 'the metropolis of empire, afterward of religion, and still of the arts,' must have enabled him to render his catalogues more copious than any that have appeared in our language; and (as we before observed) though dry lists of paintings and sculpture will afford little amusement or instruction to English readers who have never travelled, yet to those who have already been in Italy, these volumes will be useful in reminding them of what they have seen; and for young artists and dilettanti, when visiting Rome, they form an excellent *vade mecum*, and may save the expence of a *Cicerone*.

Dr. B....y.

ART. XII. *Odes of Anacreon*, translated into English Verse. With Notes. By Thomas Moore, Esq. of the Middle Temple. 4to. pp. 280; and 3 Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Stockdale. 1800.

HAVING lately taken notice of a French version, modestly called an *Imitation* of the Odes of Anacreon *, we had occasion for making various remarks on former translations in different languages, which must not be repeated in our account of the present volume: but we have now to observe that, since the former article was written, we have found that all the knowlege concerning the life of the Teian bard, his writings, and translators, has been furnished to late editors by our grand archetype, Bayle; who read and thought for himself, neither taking nor giving any fact on trust. This patriarchal critic, this model of *Reviewers* †, is still the best pattern that we can follow. His doubting spirit, so offensive to pious readers, was not confined to religious subjects, but extended to all his researches; and it has gained for him, in secular matters, a weight and importance which careless investigators never obtain. Without being guilty of polemic rudeness, this diligent and sagacious inquirer has pointed out, in his notes to the article ANACREON, in his Dictionary, inaccuracies even in writers of the first eminence, concerning the life and writings of the poet who was devoted to the service of the Loves and Graces:—Suidas, Isaac Vossius, Le Fevre, and his daughter, Madame Dacier. Le Fevre, who could not quote an old author without adding some embellishment, and supplying whatever might be thought wanting to *round* a story, has thus branched out the following short passage of Plato, *in Hipparcho*: Επ' Αναπρέοντα τὸν Τήϊον πενηκόντερον στείλας ἐκόμισεν εἰς την πόλιν; "Hipparchus invited Anacreon of Teios to Athens, and sent a vessel of 50 oars for him, with very polite and obliging letters, entreating him to cross the Ægean sea; assuring him that his merit would meet with persons wholly acquainted with his genius and abilities, and who knew how to estimate men of rare talents."—Now all that Plato says amounts only to this: "Hipparchus invited Anacreon, a native of Teos, to Athens, and sent a vessel for him with 50 oars." Le Fevre also quotes Herodotus with similar amplification.—Bayle's reflections on this paraphrastical manner of quoting are applicable to others besides Le Fevre: "I am sorry (says he) that men of profound learning and erudition should believe, without examination, that Plato and Herodotus had said all that this learned critic has put into

* See the Appendix to our xxxiid Vol. N. S. p. 459.

† *Nouvelles de la Republique des Lettres.*

their

their mouths. It is very necessary to distinguish the original texture from the embroidery of those who quote."

We are glad of so strong a support as that of Bayle in totally disregarding all doubts that have been thrown on the authenticity of the Odes which pass under the name of Anacreon. It has been imagined, though by no high authority, that the supposed poems of the Teian bard are only *Anacreontics*, by various Greek imitators of his manner, collected into a body: but could all these imitations be so constantly in the same style and dialect, if composed at different times by different authors?

It is now time to pay our respects to Mr. Moore; whom we congratulate on his success in translating an author who requires somewhat more than rhymes and metre to transfuse his spirit into our language. Much learning and a wide extent of reading are also manifested in Mr. M.'s notes; which will convey considerable information to readers who are not deeply versed in scholia, commentaries, and classical anecdotes. It will perhaps be said that he is not equally happy in *all* his versions: but it would not be candid to expect this uniform excellence. The Grecian bard himself has not composed all his odes with equal felicity. Fawkes, in *Cupid benighted*, is perhaps superior to Mr. Moore in smoothness: but there is a force in the present translation, which will repay the mind for small offences against the ear. We perused some of the odes, indeed, with a small degree of disappointment, from the harshness of a few of the lines, and the use of unlyrical words. The Italian poetical words furnish but a small part of the general dictionary of the language; and Baretti somewhere says that, out of 40,000 terms, not more than 4 or 5000 are allowed to be lyrical. The mixture of Iambics with Trochaics, indiscriminately, has not a good effect on our ear, though it is authorized by Milton.—In a few of the odes at the commencement of the work, Mr. M. seems scarcely to have trained his Pegasus to the true Anacreontic *allure* or *rate:* but his winged courser becomes more vigorous and fleet, the farther he advances. In giving specimens, however, we shall transfer the office of eulogist to his own Muse. The first example of characteristic ease and grace shall be Bacchanalian, and according to the translator's arrangement, which follows that of the Vatican MS.

ODE XXI.

'Observe when mother earth is dry,
She drinks the droppings of the sky;
And then the dewy cordial gives
To ev'ry thirsty plant that lives.
The vapours, which at evening weep,
Are beverage to the swelling deep;

And when the rosy sun appears,
He drinks the ocean's misty tears.
The moon too quaffs her paly stream
Of lustre, from the solar beam—
Then, hence with all your sober thinking!
Since Nature's holy law is drinking;
I'll make the laws of nature mine,
And pledge the universe in wine!'

Rousseau says that drunkenness is the most generous of all the vices: but he allows (and who can deny?) that it *is* a *vice*.

The next ode which we shall quote is full of juvenile fancies that have been often imitated; as, indeed, have been all the poems of Anacreon that have come down to us:

'ODE XXII.

'The Phrygian rock, that braves the storm,
Was once a weeping matron's form—
And Progne, hapless, frantic maid,
Is now a swallow in the shade.
Oh! that a mirror's form were mine,
To sparkle with that smile divine;
And like my heart I then should be,
Reflecting thee, and only thee!
Or were I, love, the robe which flows
O'er every charm that secret glows,
In many a lucid fold to swim,
And cling and grow to every limb!
Oh! could I, as the streamlet's waye,
Thy warmly-mellowing beauties lave,
Or float as perfume on thine hair,
And breathe my soul in fragrance there!
I wish I were the zone, that lies
Warm to thy breast, and feels it's sighs;
Or like those envious pearls that shew
So faintly round that neck of snow,
Yes—I would be a happy gem,
Like them to hang, to fade like them;
What more would thy Anacreon be?
Oh! any thing that touches thee.
Nay, sandals for those airy feet—
Thus to be press'd by thee were sweet!'

The subsequent specimen is filled with execrations against the power of gold, in which the bard has been joined by Ovid, Tibullus, and many *poor* lovers:

'ODE XXIX.

'Yes—loving is a painful thrill,
And not to love more painful still;
But surely 'tis the worst of pain,
To love and not be lov'd again!

Affection

Affection now has fled from earth,
Nor fire of genius, light of birth,
Nor heavenly virtue can beguile
From beauty's cheek one favouring smile.
Gold is the woman's only theme,
Gold is the woman's only dream.
Oh! never be that wretch forgiven—
Forgive him not, indignant heaven!
Whose grovelling eyes could first adore,
Whose heart could pant for sordid ore.
Since that devoted thirst began,
Man has forgot to feel for man;
The pulse of social life is dead,
And all it's fonder feelings fled!
War too has sullied Nature's charms,
For gold provokes the world to arms!
And oh! the worst of all it's art,
I feel it breaks the lover's heart!'

Mr. Moore's illustrations in the notes are in general interesting and lively, and (as we have already remarked) bespeak diligence, learning, and good taste. The imitations of Anacreon, which he inserts in various languages, are always followed by elegant translations. Of this kind is the subsequent translation of a Greek Anacreontic by Menage, " enforcing the necessity of loving," and of which the text is taken from the second line of the preceding ode:

' *To* PETER DANIEL HUET.

' Thou! of tuneful bards the first,
Thou! by all the graces nurst.
Friend! each other friend above,
Come with me and learn to love.
Loving is a simple lore,
Graver men have learn'd before;
Nay—the boast of former ages,
Wisest of the wisest sages,
Sophroniscus' prudent son,
Was by love's illusion won—
Oh! how heavy life would move,
If we knew not how to love!
Love's a whetstone to the mind—
Thus 'tis pointed, thus refin'd.
When the soul dejected lies,
Love can waft it to the skies;
When in languor sleeps the heart,
Love can wake it with his dart;
When the mind is dull and dark,
Love can light it with his spark!
Come, oh! come then—let us haste
All the bliss of love to taste:

Let us love both night aad day,
Let us love our lives away!
And when hearts, from loving free,
(If indeed such hearts there be),
Frown upon our gentle flame,
And the sweet delusion blame;
This shall be my only curse,
(Could I—could I wish them worse?)
May they ne'er the rapture prove,
Of the smile from lips we love!'

We shall now *take a dip* for one other example of Mr. Moore's poetical spirit and powers of versification;—and, fortunately, Anacreon's exquisite address to the Rose, as beautiful as the subject on which it is written, has presented itself for insertion;

'ODE LV.

'While we invoke the wreathed spring,
Resplendent Rose! to thee we'll sing—
Resplendent Rose, the flower of flowers,
Whose breath perfumes Olympus' bowers;
Whose virgin blush, of chasten'd dye,
Enchants so much our mortal eye.
When pleasure's bloomy season glows,
The Graces love to twine the rose;
The rose is warm Dione's bliss,
And flushes like Dione's kiss!
Oft has the poet's magic tongue
The rose's fair luxuriance sung;
And long the Muses, heavenly maids,
Have rear'd it in their tuneful shades.
When, at the early glance of morn,
It sleeps upon the glittering thorn,
'Tis sweet to dare the tangled fence,
To cull the timid floweret thence,
And wipe with tender hand away,
The tear that on its blushes lay!
'Tis sweet to hold the infant stems,
Yet dropping with Aurora's gems,
And fresh inhale the spicy sighs,
That from the weeping buds arise.
When revel reigns, when mirth is high,
And Bacchus beams in every eye,
Our rosy fillets scent exhale,
And fill with balm the fainting gale!
Oh! there is nought in nature bright,
Where roses do not shed their light!
When morning paints the orient skies,
Her fingers burn with roseate dies;
The nymphs display the rose's charms,
It mantles o'er their graceful arms;

Through

Through Cytherea's form it glows,
And mingles with the living snows.
The rose distils a healing balm,
The beating pulse of pain to calm;
Preserves the cold, inurned clay;
And mocks the vestige of decay.
And when at length, in pale decline,
Its florid beauties fade and pine,
Sweet as in youth, it's balmy breath
Diffuses odour even in death!
Oh! whence could such a plant have sprung?
Attend—for thus the tale is sung.
When, humid from the silv'ry stream,
Effusing beauty's warmest beam,
Venus appear'd, in flushing hues,
Mellow'd by ocean's briny dews—
When, in the starry courts above,
The pregnant brain of mighty Jove
Disclos'd the nymph of azure glance—
The nymph who shakes the martial lance!
Then, then, in strange eventful hour,
The earth produc'd an infant flower,
Which sprung, with blushing tinctures drest,
And wanton'd o'er its parent's breast.
The gods beheld this brilliant birth,
And hail'd the Rose—the boon of earth!
With nectar-drops, a ruby tide,
The sweetly-orient buds they dyed,
And bade them bloom, the flowers divine
Of him who sheds the teeming vine;
And bade them, on the spangled thorn
Expand their bosoms to the morn!'

In taking our leave of this work, we have only farther to observe that it is printed on paper and with types of great beauty; and that it is in all respects an elegant and pleasing publication.

Dr B...y.

ART. XIII. *A Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry*, with an Introduction explaining the Nature and Use of Logarithms, adapted to the Use of Students in Philosophy. By the Rev. S. Vince, A.M. F.R.S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy, Cambridge. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Wingrave. 1800.

THE first part of this volume contains, as the title page sets forth, an explanation of Logarithms, the use of which is shewn by a great variety of examples; and the second treats on Plane Trigonomety. In Art. 56. the definition of Trigonometry is curious, but not very precise, nor very convincing.

The difficulty of the negative cosines is escaped in p. 49. by referring to an article in the Algebra, which is far from being satisfactory. In the same page, the Professor asserts that an arc of 90° has neither a tangent nor a secant; and in a long note he exposes the paradoxes and absurdities into which the contrary opinion leads us. Now although we do not pretend to have any idea of an infinite quantity, yet in a certain sense the expressions *infinitely great* and *infinitely small* are sufficiently intelligible; they are what Wallis and Leibnitz styled *passables*; and we may as safely admit into mathematical calculation, the sign for an infinite quantity, viz. $\frac{1}{0}$ or ∞, as we admit $a\sqrt{-1}$, or $a^x\sqrt{-1}$: but it is strange that the author should deny the existence of the secant and tangent of 90°, yet admit the existence of a cosine of 90°. What is a cosine? that part of the diameter which is intercepted between the sine and the centre; whence, in an arc of 90°, the extremity of the sine is in the centre; and consequently, according to the definition of terms, (to use the author's own reasoning,) there is no cosine to that arc, there being no distance:—so that, if it be denied that an arc of 90° has a secant, it is a most strict consequence that it has no cosine:—but give the cosine a *mathematical* existence, call it *o*, then the corresponding designation of the secant is $\frac{1^2}{0}$ or ∞, and no error can arise in mathematical reasoning, from thus representing the tangent or secant, since ∞ is as proper a sign for the tangent of 90° as 0 is for the cosine.

The proposition in spherics, which is introduced to shew the absurdity of admitting that an arc of 90° has a tangent, is this;— : radius : cosine of the angle at the base :: tangent of the hypothenuse : tangent of base. Now, says the author, when the base is 90°, the hypothenuse is 90°; therefore, their tangents are equal; and consequently radius=cosine of the angle at the base, whatever that angle may be. This proposition is deduced by aid of the complementary triangle: but if we make the base 90°, there is no such triangle;—all that we can do, therefore, is to take the base $\angle$ 90° and to find what the proportion becomes in the limiting state of the complementary triangle: now the proportion in this latter triangle is : sine side : rad^s :: tangent side : tangent of angle opposite; or, in the other triangle, : the cosine of the angle at the base : rad^s :: cot. hypothenuse : cot. base; or, : cosine angle base : rad^s :: tang. base : tang. hypothenuse. If B and H be base and hypothe-

hypothenuse, $\frac{\text{cosine angle base}}{\text{rad.}} = \frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T. H}} = \frac{\text{cot. (quad}^{t}\text{—B)}}{\text{cot. (quad}^{t}\text{—H)}}$: but, in the ultimate state of the complementary triangle, $\frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T. H}}$ or $\frac{\text{Cot. (Q—B)}}{\text{Cot. (Q—H)}}$ is not = to 1 any more than $\frac{x^2-a^2}{x-a}$ or $\frac{x^3-a^3}{x-a}$ $= \frac{0}{0}$ is = to 1 when $x = a$.

To use the mathematical phrase, the limiting ratio of $\frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T. H}}$ is not a ratio of equality.

In page 95, Mr. Vince again uses fallacious arguments to prove that the tangent of 90 should not be expressed by a symbol: for to deny that the arc of 90° has a tangent, when examined, is to deny that it can be properly represented by a mathematical symbol. His reasoning is this; tangent (45°+Arc) =tang. (45°—Arc)+2 tang. 2 Arc; hence, if Arc=45°, tang. (90°)=2 tang. (90°): an absurdity.—Now it is to be observed that this proposition is thus deduced; tang. (45°+Arc) $= \frac{\text{T.}45^\circ + \text{T. Arc(A)}}{1 - \text{T.}45^\circ\,\text{T. Arc}}$, and tang.(45°—Arc)$= \frac{\text{T.}45^\circ - \text{T. Arc(A)}}{1 + \text{T.}45^\circ\,\text{T. Arc}}$ and (if t represent tang. of Arc)

Tangent (45°+A)—tangent (45°—A)$= \frac{1+t}{1-t} \frac{1-t}{1+t}$ $= \frac{4t}{1-t^2} =$ 2 tang. (2 A): but if A=45°, then it can never be proved that tangent 45°—A$= \frac{1-t}{1+t}$;—and it is surely very strange to admit into calculation the tangent of (45°—45°), and to exclude thence the tangent of 90°. The proposition, then, tang. (45°+A)=tang. (45°—A)+2 tang. 2 A, can *never* be proved, except A differs, no matter by how small a quantity, from 45°. Let A=45°—z; then the above proposition becomes tang. (90—z)=tang. (z)+2 tang. (90—2z): which is a true equation, however small z may be: but, when z is put accurately o, then the above proposition is false, and all the mathematicians in the world can never prove it.

The proposition concerning the tangent of the sum and difference of two arcs is proved by two different processes; and it may perhaps be proper to shew the student how truth may be obtained by various methods:—science, indeed, is not yet so perfect that one method should be pursued to the exclusion of all others:—but we wish that, in this treatise, the Algebraical and Geometrical methods had not been mixed. It is not

not of very great consequence which is followed: but let the student follow one only, if he wishes for perspicuity, connection, and system. Truth may be acquired by trial, induction, or analogy: but it is only truth, strictly and logically deduced, that constitutes science.

In the appendix to the Plane Trigonometry, Professor Vince gives the method of expressing the sine and cosine of arcs by the aid of exponential quantities. He likewise inserts the formula invented by Euler; namely, that, if z be an arc, then

$$\frac{z}{2} = \sin. z - \frac{1}{2}\sin. 2z + \frac{1}{3}\sin. 3z - \frac{1}{4}\sin. 4z +, \&c.$$

Part III. as we may call it, of this treatise, relates to Spherical Trigonometry. Propositions 8, 9, & 10. appear to us to want demonstration; and we hope, for the credit of our understanding, that the proofs of them are not very easy according to the method pointed out by the author:—we certainly do not perceive the truth of these propositions to be self-evident, nor do we think that their demonstration is obvious.

In these two parts of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, the Professor has judiciously introduced a great variety of curious and useful theorems, and has shewn how to reduce them to a logarithmic computation. A great number of examples are likewise given: but we are sorry to see them announced in *astronomical* terms; because the present treatise is intended to be *merely trigonometrical*, and therefore the examples should belong neither to this nor to that science. The theorems should have been illustrated by examples made up of mere bones and skeleton; whereas, by putting them into astronomical language, they are clothed with flesh and muscle. Mr. Vince is too stedfastly attentive to the purposes of the practical Astronomer.

The work is closed by several propositions relative to the variations of spherical triangles, similar to those which Cotes has given in his *Estimatio Errorum in mixtâ Mathesi.*

We have without reserve stated what we deem to be the imperfections and errors of the present treatise; yet, were we required in a few words to give our judgment of its merits, we should have no hesitation in pronouncing it to be an useful and valuable publication.

The reader will find an account of Mr. Vince's *Principles of Astronomy* in our last volume, p. 239. and of his larger work intitled *A Complete System of Astronomy*, in our xxviith volume, p. 121. and the number for May last, p. 72.

R. Wood.

Art.

ART. XIV. *New Observations concerning the Colours of thin Transparent Bodies*, shewing those Phænomena to be Inflections of Light, and that the Newtonian Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection derived from them have no existence, but fail equally in their Establishment and in their Application by Newton to account for the Colours of Natural Bodies. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE object of a former publication by this author, of which we gave an account in our last Review, page 279, &c. was to shew that the Newtonian Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection have no existence; and that the phænomena, which seem thence to be derived, are merely cases of Inflections:—this design is here again proposed. From the doctrine of the Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection, Newton had deduced an explanation of the colours of natural bodies: which doctrine and the deductions from it are controverted by our author, who thus clearly states Newton's opinion:

'This last hypothesis consists in ascribing to the rays of light certain properties, or dispositions, by which, from their first emission, and during their whole course of future propagation, they at certain intervals of their course are alternately disposed to be reflected or transmitted, if then arriving at the surface of any transparent, opake, or coloured body. The existence of these qualities of the rays he considers as discovered by direct experiment, and established unquestionably by the plain evidence of sense, in observations upon the phænomena of colours produced by thin plates of any transparent substance. By such a thin plate, of varying thickness, he conceived he saw one and the same sort of rays at equal angles of incidence, alternately reflected and transmitted for many successions as the thickness of the plate increased, and continuing so to be for innumerable vicissitudes to considerable thicknesses of the plate, and the same thing happening to all the different sorts of rays under the same circumstances, at other different varying thicknesses of the same plate. Hence he concluded, that there was no limitation to these alterations; that they were propagated from every refracting surface to all distances without end; that they were, therefore, properties inherent in light before its incidence on transparent bodies, and probably at its first emission from luminous bodies, and continued in it during all its progress. All the observations thus made are, however, absolutely illusive; and the conclusions drawn from them are, therefore, consequently unfounded. The phænomena themselves are merely cases of the inflections of light; and although part of the light incident on a thin plate does indeed return back into, and part pass on into the further part of the medium contiguous to the plate, yet, strictly speaking, there is neither reflection nor transmission, at least such affections of light as are usually so called, and prevail at the confines of the two different transparent media under other circumstances. This, although not hitherto noticed, is yet not among the least important observations derived from these phenomena.'

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The writer next describes an experiment respecting the transmission of light through two plates of glass, brought into contact by pressure; and he then relates other experiments, all tending to confirm his stated opinion:

'Most of the preceding observations (he says) respecting the rings of colours produced by a thin plate of any transparent substance, were made by Newton; but he had not made the observations respecting the inflections of light necessary for understanding and explaining them. In his 5th, 6th, and 7th observations of the 3d book of his Optics respecting the inflections of light, he had unfortunately omitted to observe all the intermediate changes produced in the light passed between the edges of two knives approaching one another in the same plane, particularly the regular production of two distinct sets of fringes, in manner before described; and had leaped from the inflected light of one knife, when the other was removed entirely away, to the last light included between two upon their nearest approach, which lights in both cases he called streams of light, and confounded with each other, noticing only the two or three last fringes, which he did not accurately distinguish from the other fringes made where the knives were more remote, and in light rendered divergent by the small hole through which it passed, although the colours of these were in an order the inverse of the colours of those. Of these rings, therefore, it was impossible for him to discover and understand the principles of the origin and formation. He conceived, however, that he saw enough in the rings themselves to render "their origin manifest," and as this appeared consistent with his hypothesis of the rays of light, he was satisfied therewith.

'Observing at the point of closest approach of the two glasses, and to some distance round about, and particularly when one sort of coloured light was used, that the whole of the light passed on, and therefore none was thence returned; that next to the black central spot thus formed on one side of the glasses a ring of colours, and then a dark interval and other rings and dark intervals alternately succeeded; and that next to the central light thus formed on the other side of the glasses a dark interval, and then a ring of colours, and other dark intervals and rings alternately succeeded; that there was also some semblance of equality between the dark and coloured rings on different sides of the glasses, he concluded that this alternation went on as it began, and not knowing the principles upon which either the first central light passed on, or any succeeding light was returned back, that at all distances from the central spot exactly the same thing happened to the whole body of the light, and that the dark intervals on both sides of the glasses were made by the light which should have filled them up passing over to the other side, and forming the coloured rings on both sides. It must be confessed, that in the rings formed by coloured light these alternations seemed to be established beyond all question by the clearest evidence of eye-sight; nor would my master have been induced by any less powerful evidence to consider them as facts established beyond all question, although being unable to account for their existence, he

contented

contented himself "with the bare discovery," which he conceived and stated that he had made, that they did exist. There is not a natural phænomenon, not even excepting the apparent diurnal revolution of all the heavenly bodies round the earth, which seems to be more directly and unquestionably proved by sense. This is indeed the best evidence to be had in these cases, nor do the perceptions deceive us. It is only in the conclusions drawn from the perceptions, respecting the modes of existence necessary to produce them, that we can be mistaken. If there be more than one mode of producing the same appearances, it is only by a consideration of other the general phænomena, that it can correctly be determined which is the true mode.'

After having discussed the fits of easy transmission and reflection, the explanation of the colours of natural bodies on the principles of thin plates is examined, together with many other parts of the Newtonian doctrine. The following is the examination of Newton's opinion that the least parts of all natural bodies are transparent:

'Newton endeavours to prove this supposition in Prop. II. part. 3. book 2. in this manner. He affirms that the least parts of *almost* all natural bodies are *in some measure* transparent, and he then states that all substances however opaque, if sufficiently thinned and applied to a hole through which light is immitted into a dark room, will appear very manifestly transparent. But these facts do not establish the point. They only show that the bodies themselves are transparent under these circumstances, not the parts of the bodies, and much less the very least parts themselves. When light passes through a perfectly transparent body or any of the bodies of the experiment, there must be parts by which, and not through which the light passes, and of these parts it certainly cannot in these cases be inferred that *they* are transparent, and they are either the least or composed of the least parts. White metalline bodies are indeed excepted of necessity, because they prove against the principle to be established, and yet we shall find hereafter this very principle applied to them also in their metalline state, (fo. 232—3). The same thing is, however, affirmed of them also, when in solution by menstrua they compose transparent liquors, and then it is said they become transparent. Neither, however, in this case does it appear that the body or its least parts are transparent. As to the body or aggregate, the existence of that is destroyed by the solution, and as to the least parts dispersed in the solution, their transparency is no more proved than that of the particles of the menstruum, or of any transparent body, by and between, and not through whose particles light passes, in such a manner as to constitute transparency, and whose least parts certainly cannot be transparent, but must be solid and opaque.'

The other parts of our great philosopher's doctrine here examined are,—those which relate to the opacity and blackness of bodies arising from internal reflections; those which treat of the existence of refractive medium between the parts of opaque and coloured bodies; and those which assign the cause of re-

flection between transparent media. On this last part, the author says:

'The reason assigned why reflections are only at the surfaces of media adjacent to other media of different densities, and not in the internal parts of the media themselves, is not well founded. It is not because the internal contiguous parts of the same media have the same density, but because the arrangement and condition of their internal parts relatively to one another are different from the arrangement and condition of the parts of the two distinct and different media, at their confines, relatively to one another.'

If we considered merely the size of this tract, the extent of our quotations would be already disproportionate: but we shall increase that quantity by the addition of another extract, without fearing the censure of having too much obtruded on the public the author's thoughts and observations:

'Of the numerous classes of natural bodies there is one which, from the readiness with which all of that class are penetrated and passed through in every direction by light, may be and are called transparent. To this class belong water, ice, glass, crystals of various sorts. From this class is derived another compounded of these, and which, being formed of parts consisting of distinct portions of these, exist as aggregates of them, but without their transparency. From the contemplation of this last class of bodies principally Newton seems to have formed his opinion of, and to have reasoned concerning the structure of all others whatsoever, and even of the bodies themselves from which they are derived, by these he has illustrated, and to these he has referred for proof of every part of his doctrine. This limited conception concerning the internal composition of bodies was by no means fitted for a doctrine that undertook to explain the colours, and causes of production of the colours and appearances by light, of all natural bodies. Yet did the great master contrive to make every thing apparently conform to these principles, and for more than a century they have never been questioned.

'By considering attentively transparent bodies or bodies of the first class, from the phænomena of light, and from other phænomena, we readily perceive that each transparent body is divided into many distinct small parts with intervals between them. These parts and intervals may be called and distinguished by the names of particles and pores. Let us now consider a body of the second class composed of many portions of this same body. Besides the particles and pores of each portion, the aggregate consists of many of these same portions with intervals between them also. These portions are not the same with the particles, nor their intervals the same with the pores. If, therefore, for distinction sake these portions be called parts, as making up the aggregate, and their intervals, interstices, the aggregate will consist not only of parts and interstices, but also of particles and pores, all of which are distinct from each other. Now the direct and principal consequence of Newton's considering all bodies as aggregates of this second class, is an inextricable confusion of parts and particles,

particles, interstices and pores, and the constant and uncontrouled substitution of these for the others, as occasion or the argument required. Of this we have an immediate example in this third proposition, where, in order to establish and illustrate a general proposition respecting the condition or existence of a substance in the pores between the particles of all bodies, he has produced a list altogether composed of bodies of the second class or compound aggregates, and by calling the interstices pores, and considering the parts as particles, has applied to pores and particles what is only shewn of parts and interstices, and endeavoured thus to render the proposition general of all bodies. It is true, as he affirms, that paper, the *oculus mundi* stone, cloth, and other substances of the same kind become transparent by being soaked in water or oil, and again that these having no water or oil soaked in them, or that glass, horn, water, and oils being divided into small parts and separated by intermixture of air or other fluids become opaque; but no argument drawn from these facts can be applied to solid continuous bodies. Between these and those and their internal constitutions there is no more resemblance than between the particles and pores of solid glass and the intervals between gross pieces of the same glass reduced to powder. These pieces or parts are distinct bodies. The phænomena exhibited by these bodies, thus consisting of detached parts united only at particular points or not united at all, are easily to be accounted for by the ordinary reflections and refractions between their parts and the parts of any other substance which we may interpose or remove from amidst them at our pleasure; but cannot prove the existence of a substance in the pores of those parts themselves which are joined to one another, or in the pores of the very medium which is introduced among them where they are not joined.'

To find defects in the accurate philosophy of Newton, or to make opposition to the authority of so great a name, appears to be a difficult and dangerous undertaking: yet the author of the present treatise has no cause for regret at the exertion of his talents in such an attempt. His observations will be found to be made with judgment, and expressed with great modesty: if, therefore, he may not escape the hostility of the advocates of the Newtonian doctrine, he at least ought to be secure from the severity of repulse which a wanton, a petulant, and an imbecile attack on a long established system might deservedly call forth.

Some of the obscurity which we formerly stated to be characteristic of this author's style, and which is sufficiently exemplified in the preceding extracts, arises from his very remarkable negligence with respect to punctuation; a matter which is too often but little considered or ill understood by writers, though it is very necessary to make them well understood by their readers.

G.2.

R. Wood.

ART. XV. *Experiments with the Metallic Tractors*, in Rheumatic and Gouty Affections, Inflammations and various Topical Diseases; as published by Surgeons Herholdt and Rafn, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Copenhagen; translated into German by Professor Tode, Physician to his Danish Majesty; thence into the English Language by Mr. Charles Kampfmuller: also Reports of about one hundred and fifty Cases in England; demonstrating the Efficacy of the Metallic Practice, in a Variety of Complaints, both upon the Human Body, and on Horses, &c. Edited by Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. of Leicester-square, London, Son of the Discoverer. 8vo. pp. 355. 5s. Boards. Johnson, &c.

AMONG all the excentricities of these times of daring innovation, nothing has amused us more than the new school of quackery. The stage and merry-Andrew, the half-sheet bill of advertisement, and the half-crown pill-box, are now exchanged for pompous octavos, and five-guinea subscriptions; and if the shallow pretensions of the empiric should be derided by good judges, he complains that philosophical inquiry is discouraged, and that merit must give way to prejudice. Not contented with enriching himself, by drawing from the inexhaustible mine of public credulity, he presumes to lay his hands on the shrine of Fame itself. There indeed ends his audacity; for in that attempt the reputation of all unworthy candidates must perish.—These reflections, too solemn perhaps for the subject, occurred to our minds on opening the volume before us: in which an extraordinary attempt is made, to elevate the chimerical application of the Metallic Tractors to the rank of an approved remedy.

It would be an insult to the understanding of our readers, particularly of our medical friends, to enter into a serious discussion of this subject *. Indeed, there can be no essential service rendered to the world by detecting any particular species of empiricism, because the principle, on which the victims of quackery are seduced, cannot be eradicated;—the fall of one imposition, therefore, will only make room for the introduction of another. As Mr. Perkins, however, has thought it proper to complain at considerable length, in this book, that we have laughed at him in former articles in our Review, we shall just advert to his hypercriticism. Mr. P. states, (p. 298.)

1. That we have misrepresented one of his Cases, by asserting that the patient was cured in *two* minutes by the tractors;

* The experiments of medical men on the Continent, reported in this volume, have been already stated by us, in an account of the original work. See Appendix to vol. xxix. of the M. R. New Series, p. 559, &c.

whereas,

whereas, according to Mr. P. the pain did not *entirely* leave him in less than thirty or forty minutes. In answer, we must observe that, when we come to calculate minutes, the expression of *thirty* or *forty* is extremely inaccurate, and affords no ground of assertion; while the former part of the story goes on very well, that the narrator "bled him three times *to little purpose;* but after about *two minutes* operation with the tractors, he exclaimed in ecstacy "I am well—I am well—my pain is gone."—However, if the reader be determined to place this balance of 28 minutes against us, we beg him to remember that the pain was '*taking leave, tho' loth to depart,*' during their lapse.

2. Mr. P. charges us with having said that the patient had been bled thrice, before the tractors were applied. His friend Dr. Vaughan has stated this fact, and we have merely repeated it from him. The phrase, *to little purpose*, we omitted, because it was indefinite, and apparently conjectural. Practitioners in this country do not consider three successive bleedings as of trifling import.

3. Mr. P. remarks that we have asserted that the tractors are recommended in cases of internal inflammation, whereas external complaints only are mentioned in his book. We have not the first edition of his publication on our table: but we observe that, in the title-page of a second edition of "*The Influence of the Tractors,*" advertised at the end of the present collection, *pleurisy* is enumerated among the diseases for which the tractors are applicable.

So far we have been able to go on with a little gravity: but, when we arrived at the following pathetic complaint, (p. 354.) we were compelled to an indecorous fit of laughter:

'This (the Reviewer's) unwarrantable mode of offering *assertion* for *proof*, so unauthorised and even unprecedented, except in the condemnation of a Galileo, the persecution of a Copernicus, and a few other acts of inquisitorial authority, in the times of ignorance and superstition, affords but a lamentable instance indeed of the correctness of one of his remarks, viz. that "this is far from being the *Age of Reason.*"

We could point out another predecessor of Mr. Perkins, who complained in equally lofty terms of the wicked wits of his time; we mean the celebrated John Partridge, practitioner in leather and astrology, who was so cruelly treated by a certain 'Squire Bickerstaff. Partridge, too, had the boldness to prefer a charge against his satirist, of having mistaken a point by some minutes—we believe even hours; yet the laugh remained on the side of Bickerstaff.—Mr. Perkins's famous arche-

type Greatrex, the stroaker, had also equal ground for lamentation, in the overthrow of his imposture.

We shall reserve our farther remarks for the two following articles.

Fer.

ART. XVI. *Of the Imagination, as a Cause and as a Cure of Disorders of the Body;* exemplified by Fictitious Tractors, and Epidemical Convulsions. Read to the Literary and Philosophical Society of Bath. By John Haygarth, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE candour of a liberal and scientific practitioner was never more strongly exemplified than in this essay. Dr. Haygarth, finding the imposture of the tractors supported by several persons of rank and fashion at Bath, proposed a fair and impartial test of their efficacy, which he has stated in the following words:

"The Tractors have obtained such high reputation at Bath, even among persons of rank and understanding, as to require the particular attention of physicians. Let their merit be impartially investigated, in order to support their fame, if it be well founded, or to correct the publick opinion, if merely formed upon delusion. Such a trial may be accomplished in the most satisfactory manner, and ought to be performed without any prejudice. Prepare a pair of false, exactly to resemble the true Tractors. Let the secret be kept inviolable, not only from the patient, but every other person. Let the efficacy of both be impartially tried, beginning always with the false Tractors. The cases should be accurately stated, and the reports of the effects produced by the true and false Tractors be fully given, in the words of the patients."

The success of the experiments was equal to that announced by the most zealous Perkinists. Obstinate pains were relieved, and paralytic limbs were restored to motion, by the application of pieces of wood, coloured to resemble the tractors. We shall select one or two of the cases related by Mr. Smith:

"John Peacock, a patient of Dr. New's, had been afflicted for four months with a weakness of the hip, and severe rheumatick pains, brought on by working in a damp coal-pit. "At first the Tractors occasioned considerable pains, and very restless nights; (I use his own words) but after a few trials, he began to sleep unusually well, had fewer attacks of pain, and appeared confident and happy in the idea that a remedy had been discovered for his complaints." With such a subject, the event may be easily anticipated. This morning he came to thank me for my services, and he was always exceedingly grateful to Mr. Barton and Mr. Gaisford, who operated upon him in my absence. I cannot help mentioning one circumstance respecting this man. He came to me one day complaining of a violent settled pain in his forehead, which, he said, "almost distracted him,"

him," and requested me to "*draw it out.*" The pieces of mahogany were drawn gently over his forehead for a minute and a half, "when the throbbing began to abate, and in two minutes had nearly ceased." In about three or four minutes the man arose from the chair, saying, "God bless you, sir; now I am quite easy." He was attacked with this pain only once afterwards, which affected his vision considerably, but it was removed as easily as in the former instance.

"All these cases turning out so happily, it may be imagined that they are *selected.* I declare, however, that they are the first that occur in the minute-book; and if I could imagine it necessary to add more, there are several remaining, equally successful.'—

'*Postscript to Mr.* SMITH'*s Letter.*

"Edmund Williams applied to me with a *stillicidium urinæ.* This man was a poor feeble subject, and appeared to be impressed with the idea that nothing would be serviceable to him; but he was "willing to try any thing." In one minute after the points of the wooden Tractors had been drawn in various directions about the *pelvis*, he said, "I begin to feel something jumping in my inside;" and in three minutes and a half the determination of blood to the capillary vessels of the skin was evident, giving him the sensation of warmth, to which he had been a long time a stranger. On the 27th he reported that his hips had been unusually comfortable and warm; this induced me to persevere, especially as the patient himself was become less sceptical as to the powers of my Tractors. The gentleman who assisted me having borrowed the pieces of stick, I was obliged to make use of the two ten-penny nails, which (as I have before mentioned) were disguised with red and black sealing-wax, and on that account, had the dignified appellation of *Rouge et Noir.* In fact, it was often necessary to play the part of a necromancer—to describe circles, squares, triangles, and half the figures of geometry, upon the part affected, with the small ends of the Tractors. During all this time we conversed upon the discoveries of Franklin and Galvani, laying much stress upon the power of metallick points attracting even lightning, and conveying it to the earth harmless. To a more curious farce I never was witness; we were almost afraid to look each other in the face, lest an involuntary smile should remove the mask from our countenances, and dispel the charm.

"But to return to my patient:—in one minute, he felt a smarting in his loins, and warmth of his skin;" in two, "heat increased;" in four, the operation ceased, when he said "the skin was very warm." A by-stander asked him, 'if he thought himself mended?' He replied, "he would soon answer his question," and upon sitting down, suddenly exclaimed, "yes, I am better." It was demanded, 'how he knew it?' "When I used to sit down, (said the man) there was always a spirt of water thrown from me, but now I can prevent it." The experiment was two or three times repeated, and with the same result; in fact, the patient absolutely regained in a great measure the power of retention afterwards.'

As the simple detection of folly, however, does not accomplish the objects of a philosophical inquirer, Dr. Haygarth has proceeded to investigate the principle on which these effects depend; and he has deduced some very useful conclusions, both for physicians and patients:

'I have long been aware of the great importance of medical faith. Daily experience has constantly confirmed and increased my opinion of its efficacy. On numerous occasions I have declared, that I never wished to have a patient who did not possess a sufficient portion of it. These trials place its efficacy in a very conspicuous point of view, and must even astonish persons who have particularly attended to this subject; they clearly prove what wonderful effects the passions of hope and faith, excited by mere imagination, can produce upon diseases.

'On this principle we may account for the marvellous recoveries frequently ascribed to empirical remedies, which are commonly inert drugs, and generally applied by the ignorant patient in disorders totally different from what the quack himself pretends that they can cure. Magnificent and unqualified promises inspire weak minds with implicit confidence.

'I have sometimes observed that the administration of a new medicine, even when its composition was known, if recommended to the publick with exalted praise, has been attended with great success—much greater that what was confirmed by future experience.

'Hence we may discern the great advantage of medical reputation. This explains what has been frequently observed, that the same remedy will produce more beneficial effects when prescribed by a famous physician, than by a person of inferior character. In cases which have appeared to me desperate, but where the patient possessed implicit faith, I have seen very astonishing success; and have ascribed the recovery full as much to the influence of hope and great confidence, as to the medicinal quality of the drug. It is extremely fortunate, when the most powerful remedies of both body and mind unite their power to alleviate or remove a disease.'

To these very judicious remarks, we wish only to add that the facts before us exhibit, in a strong point of view, the impropriety of admitting exclusively the reports of patients themselves, as evidence of the effects of remedies. The most skilful and attentive *physician* may be occasionally deceived, on this subject: but *patients* will most assuredly impose both on themselves and others, if they are to become medical writers.

From the succeeding article, our readers will learn that Mr. Perkins has made an attempt to resist the formidable evidence, which this work affords against the intrinsic powers of his Tractors.

Fer.

ART.

ART. XVII. *The Efficacy of Perkins's Metallic Tractors*, in Topical Diseases, on the Human Body and Animals; exemplified by 250 Cases, from the first Literary Characters in Europe and America. To which is prefixed a Preliminary Discourse, in which the fallacious Attempts of Dr. Haygarth, to detract from the Merits of the Tractors, are detected, and fully confuted. By Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. &c. 12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

HAD Mr. Perkins manifested any ability for controversy, we should have felt a curiosity to know what answer he could oppose to Dr. Haygarth's decisive facts: but we were not surprized to find that he has been totally deficient in argument, though we expected him to have agreed a little better with himself. He has made an unlucky stumble at the threshold, by admitting a great part of Dr. Haygarth's conclusion, in the following terms:

'I beg to repeat what I have often had occasion to remark, in my former publications, that if a medical man can be allowed to select his patients, he may go through an hospital, and, *by observing due solemnity, and inspiring the necessary confidence in his remedy*, he may make the patients generally declare they have experienced *relief*, (I do not say that they will be *cured*, or that any visible effect will be observable on the part affected) and this shall be done with either a stick, stone, brickbat, skewer, pipe-stem, or indeed without any thing but his bare finger.'

After having protested, also, against any pretensions to cure *internal inflammation* *, and after having limited himself to *topical diseases* in the title-page of the present work, we observe that cases are here produced, in which *epilepsy*, *erysipelas*, *gout*, *palsy*, *pleurisy*, and *peripneumony*, *rheumatism* of both kinds, *chorea*, and other spasmodic affections, have been treated by the Tractors. If Mr. P. reckons these disorders among those which are topical or external, he must labour under as strange a delusion as his advocates. Could this matter bear a serious examination, so gross an instance of ignorance would be sufficiently conclusive against his pretensions.

We must, however, notice Mr. Perkins's attempt to shelter himself under the letter of acknowlegement sent by the Secretary of the Royal Society, in return for the present of Mr. P.'s book. It is well understood that a printed form is filled up, on such occasions, with the name of the author and the title of his work, to prevent the possibility of surmising that the Society pledges itself to the support of any opinions contained in the books presented.—Mr. P. is perhaps as little acquainted with the usages of that society, as with the classic author whom

* See Article xv. p. 418. on the Copenhagen Experiments.

he has so barbarously disfigured, in this quotation; "*Oh! auri sacra fames, quid non mortalia pectora cogis?*"

Great weight is laid by the writer on the experiments with horses; which animals cannot, he observes, be influenced by imagination, in these operations; and which certainly cannot inform us of their feelings very distinctly, though we know that they are easily terrified. We would advise Mr. P. however, to adhere to experiments on asses of the *biped* breed, as more comfortable subjects. An unlucky kick, from an incredulous Caballine patient, might produce mischief which the Tractors cannot remove, even though it should be a *topical disease.*

It is curious that the trials of the tractors on *Sheep* have not succeeded. We suppose that the modesty of this animal creates a natural antipathy to the application. If *Geese* had been selected, perhaps the cases would have better answered Mr. P.'s expectations.

We now dismiss this contest; not *Numa quo devenit et Ancus*, but to that *barathrum* in which the fame of Dr. Rock and his brethren is involved in permanent darkness.

Fer.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1801.

EAST INDIES.

Art. 18. *A Grammar of the Malay Tongue*, as spoken in the Peninsula of Malacca, the Islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Pulo-pinang, &c.; compiled from Bowrey's Dictionary, and other authentic Documents, manuscript and printed; embellished with a Map. 4to. pp. 40. 7s. 6d. Boards. Sewell. 1800.

In the year 1710, Mr. Thomas Bowrey published a Dictionary of the Malayan tongue, which is now become exceedingly scarce. The extensive commerce carried on with the inhabitants of the eastern peninsula and adjacent isles, through the medium of this language, certainly renders the present work an useful undertaking; and the possession of the Dutch isles must tend to enlarge the sphere of its utility, while they continue in our hands: but that utility is prodigiously exaggerated in the advertisement to the book; where, among other reasons for its publication, we find the following: 'The vast extent of country over which the language is spoken, comprehending the peninsula of Malacca, the islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Maccasser, Bali, Cumbava, Salayer, Butun, Buro, Seram, Pulo-pinang, the Moluccas, and innumerable others.' The fact is that the Malays, a trading people of Arabian extraction, having settled pretty generally on the coasts of these countries, where their numbers were gradually increased by new adventurers, and by converting some of the original tribes to the Mohammedan faith, became at last a widely-dispersed,

dispersed, though never either a numerous or a powerful nation. Their language, however, is nearly limited (like their possessions) to the coasts of those distant countries; and the Aborigines retain their primæval idioms, unmixed with that of Arabia, which the Malays probably spoke pure on their first arrival. As far as we can judge from the scanty specimens here exhibited, the Malays have borrowed largely from the language of those Aboriginal inhabitants; and though we can still discern a considerable admixture of Arabian terms, yet these constitute a small part of the whole. Our attention was arrested by discovering a number of pure Sanscrit nouns, with their original signification; these the Malays must have adopted from the people among whom they settled: a fact, which cannot fail to suggest some enteresting conclusions to the philosophic historian.

The Malayan language is represented as singularly soft and pleasing to the ear; and it certainly may boast of the most simple construction of any existing dialect. Neither the nouns nor the verbs undergo any change of termination; the cases of the former are marked by prepositions, and the number by repeating the word. The mode, tense, and voice of the verbs are distinguished by different words prefixed for each.—So imperfect a dialect is ill calculated for poetry; and we conclude, from the wretched specimen exhibited by Mr. Marsden, and here copied, that the muses have not been propitious to the Malays.

In the execution of this work, we observe little which merits praise; the language is often loose and inaccurate; and many mistakes occur which must prove perplexing to the student, though we cannot determine, in all cases, whether the errors be imputable to the printer or the author. For instance, we are told that 'the verb in the active voice is only expressed in the passive:' here the author means to say that the active verb undergoes no change when rendered passive by the addition of certain words prefixed. Again, we read that 'there are neither genders nor supines in the language of Malacca:' gerunds are surely meant in this passage.—Again, 'the particle *ber* placed before the verb turns it into a participle of the present tense;' it is manifest, both from the examples and the meaning of *ber* repeatedly expressed, that, when prefixed, it gives the participle preterite of the passive. Such faults cannot be too severely censured in an elementary work; since they create unnecessary perplexity, and obstruct that improvement which they profess to facilitate.

Ham.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Amusing and instructive Conversations for Children of five Years;* from the French of the Abbé Gaultier. Small 8vo. pp. 169. 2s. Boards. West and Hughes. 1800.

Proceeding, as some others have lately done, on Mr. Locke's opinion "that learning might be made a play and recreation to children," the Abbé Gaultier has here produced a work that is likely to prove entertaining and useful to those who are farther advanced than the age of five years. 'The plan of it (the editor observes) is threefold: the first object is to present moral and entertaining readings

readings for very young children;—the second part is to introduce the young reader to grammar, by teaching him to discover the parts of speech of which the sentences he has read are composed. But the work is most directly applied to the purpose of grammatical instruction in the dialogues which follow the lessons: in these the Abbé has attempted, under the title of games (as the *game of the noun*, &c.) to amuse children with even grammar-learning.' Our work does not admit of any particular description of the author's proposed amusements in these pretty lessons and dialogues: but we join in the applause which this little performance has justly received. At the same time, it may not be improper to intimate some suitable caution against infecting the early and tender disciple with mercenary and selfish desires,—or with false and dangerous notions of superiority,—or with a propensity to or love of *gaming*;—all or any of which prove too often so injurious in the progress through life. **Hi.**

Art. 20. *A Method of making Abridgments*, or easy and certain Rules for analysing Authors. Divided into two Parts; the first containing preliminary Explanations, and the Rules for making Abridgments: the second, the Applications of those Rules to various Selections from the best Authors. By the Abbé Gaultier. Part II. 4to. pp. 130. 10s. 6d. Boards. Newbery. 1801.

Of the first part of this performance, we gave an account in our 33d volume, N. S. p. 102, and bestowed on it that commendation to which its merits intitled it. The author's design is completed by the present publication. Addison's admirable Essays on the Pleasures of the Imagination, Bishop Atterbury's eloquent Sermon on the Duty of Praise and Thanksgiving, and Dean Swift's Proposal for correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English Language, have been selected by the Abbé Gaultier as the fittest passages in our Literature to illustrate his method of making abridgments. This choice, to which he had been directed by the example of Dr. Blair in his Lectures, must be allowed to be judicious; and the work is calculated to amuse and to instruct young readers. **S.R.**

Art. 21. *Juliana*; or, the Affectionate Sisters. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Hurst. 1800.

Art. 22. *Memoirs of Dick, the Little Poney*, supposed to be written by himself; and published for the Instruction and Amusement of good Boys and Girls. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Newbery.

Art. 23. *The Stories of Senex*; or, Little Histories of Little People. By E. A. Kendal. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Newbery.

The supply of mental provision for the nursery, as we lately observed, has become so abundant, that it is difficult for us to examine and digest the whole of it. Indeed, we must either limit our inspection, or take a more cursory view of the different articles.

In general, we find that all such little books, as those of which the titles are given above, are in most respects well calculated for the end proposed, and are also liable to some objections. The morality inculcated is almost uniformly good: but one defect is also as invariably apparent in a greater or less degree; we mean the use of words

of

of which not only the length renders them difficult for a *child* to pronounce, but of which the meaning is also far from obvious to a juvenile capacity. This remark is particularly applicable to the introduction of metaphorical expressions, compound phrases, and words more immediately derived either from the classical languages, or from the modern continental tongues * .—When the work is designed for those who are advancing rather beyond the years of *childhood*, in course this objection is not so valid: but even then the explanations of a parent or a teacher will be necessary; and we think that, as these works are designed to instil the rudiments of morality, the lesson should lose none of its efficacy by a difficulty of comprehending the language in which it is conveyed. At the early period here contemplated, the conception of an idea should not be obstructed by the explanation of a term.

If we waive the usual objection against conferring the gift of speech on birds and beasts, the *Memoirs of Little Dick the Poney* are highly praiseworthy, as inculcating the very laudable and but *too necessary* maxims of mercy and kindness towards such animals:—but our little grandchildren complain that *this story book is full of hard words.*

G. 2.

NOVELS.

Art. 24. *Adonia*, a desultory Story. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. sewed. Black and Co. 1801.

Though the dedication informs us that this work is the production of a female, it is not from a motive of common gallantry that we are induced to speak well of it, since its own intrinsic merits command our praise. An extract will convince our readers, that, in the early age of the author, in the modesty with which she speaks of her performance, and in the amiable motive for its publication, we should have found a sufficient justification for a favourable report:

'Time has wrought wonderous changes on myself, and but a short time too. Though, since I began these memoirs, I have added little or nothing to my stock of book-learning; and I do not mean to affront you, my patient reader, by supposing that you have not already discovered that stock to be sufficiently scanty, without requiring that I should be the herald of my own shame; though I am sensible that my story might have been better contrived, my characters more natural and varied, my language more correct, and, above all, that the political confab between the Marchioness and my friend Johanna, in the 136th and few following pages of this volume, might at least have been disguised by a newer dress, I am contented in my nineteenth year to abandon all struggle for the literary *eminence* to which I once aspired, and to resume without loss of time, and send into the world with all its imperfections on its head, a novel, which only a few months ago I threw by me as hopeless of completion.—My motive for this intrusion on the public *is not a personal one,*

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* Such as, retrospect, prescription, transformed, tyrannize, anticipation, unanimous, precipitation, replenished, propensity, conciliate, elaxation, &c. &c.

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or I might perhaps blush to avow that "I write for fortune, not for fame." But, if my book should have the good fortune to experience a reception equally favorable with the middle class of the other novels of the day, and thence enable me to assist in relieving the necessities of a very near and dear friend, (plunged in unexpected misfortunes, and yet too delicate to accept the common modes of succour, as likely to inconvenience those she loves,) I shall not regret having sacrificed, to obtain such a recompence, the feelings which would otherwise have deterred me from exposing myself to the imputation of vanity or the reproofs of criticism.

'Gentle reader, another apostrophe or two, and I will impose my egotisms upon thy indulgence no longer.—If thou art fifteen, I know thou wilt sympathise in my page, and read it through with as much avidity as thou hast haply read fifty other such productions of fancy before; I therefore give it to thee with *pleasure*. If thou art seventeen, and thine eyes begin to open upon the fallacies of life, while thy heart yet remains enthralled by its deceitful promises; if thy mind begins to fill with new ideas, and to obtain views of its own capacity which it knew not of before, thou wilt perhaps be tempted to smile at a tale so flimsily wrought; but thou wilt nevertheless peruse it, and seek eagerly for its catastrophe. To thee I give it with *confidence*; for thou wilt be a partial, although thou shouldest not be an undiscerning, critic; as our hearts are commonly most bigoted to our mistaken views of life, in the moment when the understanding is preparing to renounce them.—If thou art even, like me, verging towards thy twentieth year, and hast for ever bidden adieu to romantic expectation and high wrought sensibilities, I do not *fear* thee. Thou wilt find nothing here which can contaminate; and it may not be unpleasing to thee to have thy former feelings awakened by fictitious distresses, especially when thou hast heard the simple apology of an author of thine own age.—From readers of more advanced years, and of better-stored minds, I have only to entreat forbearance: I cannot accurately judge of *their* feelings, but I believe that every year produces some revolution in our sentiments; and such as these may be disposed to treat me with severity. But I cannot stay to deprecate the criticism of others farther; nor must I allow myself to pursue my own. I must not falter from my purpose, nor anticipate aught which may hereafter make me repent having thrown upon the mercy of the world a work whose only engine was the hand of fancy,—a novel which asks not for fame, but *forbearance*, —which hopes not to inform, but to amuse without injuring.'—— O. Wood

Art. 25. *The Microcosm.* By the Author of Vicissitudes in genteel Life. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. sewed. Mawman. 1801.

We experience great satisfaction when it is in our power to announce the appearance of a novel, of which we can approve the tendency and applaud the execution. It is too frequently our lot to peruse and pass judgement on works of this class, which leave an unsatisfactory and melancholy impression on the mind, from the gloomy views of human nature which they exhibit, or from the interest which they excite in behalf of characters whose principles and conduct we must condemn. Not such, however, was the effect produced

produced by the present volumes. The long established rules of morality and religion are here respected and upheld; and we are called to bestow our love and esteem, only when reason gives the sanction of her approbation. Notwithstanding that the adventures are extended to five volumes, and that the narrative is frequently interrupted by digressions, it possesses sufficient interest to reward an attentive perusal. The style is lively, without being flippant, and the language is generally correct and perspicuous. We frequently meet, also, with an archness of observation and a propriety of sentiment in the digressive parts, which carry with them a sufficient apology for the breaks which they cause in the narrative; and the author manifestly possesses considerable skill in drawing and discriminating characters.

Having thus pointed out the merits of this work, we have now to state its principal faults; which appear to be the introduction of too many characters, and too great an intricacy of plot. We think that these objections might have been obviated, if the author had possessed the resolution to deviate from a practice which he describes in the preface:

'It is a misfortune to me, perhaps a greater to my readers, that I never am able to transcribe what I have written. My first copy has always been my last. Could I write over again the following volumes, I should probably make great alterations in them; but the task would be extreme: indeed not practicable. The work must be sent into the world, if sent at all, "with all its faults upon its head."

We conceive that it is a duty which every author owes to the public, frequently to revise and reconsider his work before he sends it to the press; and he does not contribute to the permanency of his own reputation, when he sends it "with all its imperfections on its head," instead of exerting his best efforts to remove them. We hope that the writer of the Microcosm will not be seduced, in future, into a compliance with so indolent a practice, by the false *éclat* which may appear to attach to the adoption of it. *O. Wood.*

Art. 26. *The Picture of the Age.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Symonds.

Notwithstanding the comprehensive title of this work, the author has attempted to delineate only one feature of the present times; viz. the sytsem of collusion practised in order to procure a divorce, when a married couple happen to fix their inclinations respectively on other objects. The fable is that of a woman who has been hurried into marriage with a man who was indifferent to her, while her heart was secretly engaged to another; after which the willowed lover returns, and takes up his residence with the husband; and the volumes are chiefly employed in describing the progress of his passion for the lady, to the formation of a guilty connexion: while it appears that the husband has actually connived at his own dishonour, because he had formed another attachment, and wishes to get rid of his wife. The story concludes with the happy event of the divorce, and with a double marriage.

In

In one other view, however, this production may be considered as a picture of our times; it exhibits vicious characters, dressed out in the most amiable and attractive colours which the author's pencil can supply: temptation is with him an excuse for crime, and all his personages have a most accommodating sympathy for each other's frailties. This is truly the spirit of some modern novellists, who delight in palliating error, and in reconciling their readers to false and extravagant delineations of character and conduct. Hence we are taught to seek for virtue among felons in a gaol, and for wisdom in Bedlam; and hence, as in the composition before us, we are told that the violation of some of our most important duties proceeds from 'grandeur of mind,' and superiority of talents.

One great fault in the *conduct* of the story, also, is that the event is anticipated at the commencement of the second volume. The interest consequently languishes, and requires the support of an under-plot, which is too extensive for the size of the work.

After this censure of the scope of the book, justice requires us to add that it is written in a better style than most productions of this nature can boast. **Fer.**

Art. 27. *The School for Fashion.* By Mrs. Thicknesse. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Debrett, &c. 1800.

These volumes contain a variety of miscellaneous matter, divided into chapters. They commence with a description of Bon-Ton Hall, where we are rather surprised to meet with only those *shades of fashion* who are now walking in the *Elysian fields.* It is long, very long, since the Duchess of Queensberry dressed like a beggar woman, with a tucked up linen gown and an old black bonnet, diverting herself and the world by going about in masquerade:—but we have no other objection to renewing our acquaintance with this whimsical but worthy Duchess, than that she is here completely out of her place, because, when we look to the title, we expect to meet with *fashionables* of the present day, not those of antiquity. The great personages who formed the circle at Bon-Ton Hall, and whom we recollect by the initials of their names, having exhibited themselves on a theatre on which the scenes have long been closed, the curtain let down, and the actors and actresses disappeared, we can say no more to them than "peace be to their manes."

The indecorous freedoms, also, introduced through the familiarity of the stay maker and the hair dresser, no longer make us tremble for our young people; though, as every age has its peculiar incentives to vice and folly, the present times may have other *fashions* of an equally *objectionable* nature. In the dedication to *Fashion*, however, which is written with spirit, we question whether Mrs. T. be not rather too severe on the reigning goddess: since, after the scenes described at Bon-Ton-hall, it appears that she was as much "the demon of impudence" at that period as at the present, with scarcely any exception even of Grecian drapery.

As this miscellany is detailed in rather a desultory manner, it produces a sensation on the reader similar to that which we have occasionally experienced from great talkers, whose discourse consists of disjointed materials, and who, by rapidly passing from one subject

to another, leave the hearer's attention at a remote distance, unless he be a very good listener.—Euterpe's travels on the continent, furnished (we apprehend) from the late Mr. T.'s common place book, abound with such very extraordinary anecdotes, that they must often impose a hard task on the reader, in requiring him to find credulity sufficient for the occasion: yet, in general, we have been amused by them; and they merit praise for some pertinent and sensible remarks.

Mrs Mo-y.

LAW.

Art. 28. *A View of the principal Parts of the most important Statutes relative to Game*, with explanatory Cases and Observations. By an Attorney. 8vo. pp. 130. 3s. sewed. Lackington and Allen. 1801.

An advertisement informs the reader that this author 'writes not for professional men, but merely for the sportsman who is neither led by business nor inclination to study the yellow leaves of musty Statutes.' Yet the pamphlet, if exclusively addressed to any set of readers, *is* addressed to those of the profession; since it contains a variety of decisions which the writer considers as contradictory, and on which he refers to what he calls clashing authorities in our law books.—It is immaterial, however, for what description of persons this work was intended, because it will not be found useful by any, being full of affectation and inconsistencies.

S.R.

Art. 29. *Inquiries into the Nature of Leasehold Property;* in which the relative Situations of Lessor and Lessee, Landlord and Tenant, are fairly considered. By a Gentleman of the Temple. 8vo. pp. 60. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1801.

The contents of this pamphlet will not be found very useful by those of our readers who are in possession of Bacon's Abridgement, in which this subject, under the title of *Leases and Terms for years*, is fully and ably considered. The author of the present work has indeed chiefly confined his attention to college and corporation leases, and to the right which the lessee has to insist on a renewal of them, on the payment of a moderate and reasonable fine. This right is certainly not recognised in our Courts of Law; and our Courts of Equity will not interpose, except under very particular circumstances, to enforce the claim of the tenant. The lessee being thus left without remedy, we do not find it easy to assign any foundation for this right in him; and the present production is not calculated to remove our difficulties. A few obvious remarks on the respective duties of landlord and tenant, and many illiberal and declamatory reflections on surveyors and land-valuers, constitute the bulk of the performance.

Do

Art. 30. *Decisions in the High Court of Admiralty*, during the Time of Sir George Hay, and of Sir James Marriott, late Judges of that Court. Vol. I. Michaelmas Term 1776, to Hilary Term 1779. 8vo. pp. 360. 9s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1801.

The example, lately set by Doctor Robinson, of publishing reports of cases decided in the High Court of Admiralty, seems to have occasioned the appearance of the present volume. The practice is to be

be commended, as it furnishes not only to our own country, but to the world at large, (which, from the very subject matter of them, is interested in these determinations,) opportunities of judging of the principles on which they proceed. Questions of great extent and importance in their consequences have lately been agitated in this court: similar cases occurred during the course of the American war; and the discussions which they produced, and the judgments which followed, are here reported, we doubt not, with perfect accuracy. As this professes to be the *first* volume of the work, we shall delay a more minute notice of its contents till the publication of the remainder.—The preface, we are sorry to observe, exhibits many instances of spleen and ill-will, and seems to intimate much more than meets the eye. S.R.

Art. 31. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber;* from Easter Term 28th George III. 1788, to Hilary Term 36th George III. 1796. By Henry Blackstone of the Middle Temple. The Third Edition, corrected with Additional Notes and improved Indexes. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. 2l. 2s. bound. Butterworth. 1801.

We take an early opportunity of announcing to the public the appearance, in their present commodious size, of these valuable reports; of which we have on former occasions spoken in terms of commendation. See M. R. vol. lxxx. p. 360. 549. N. S. vol. iii. p. 335. vol. xii. p. 95. and vol. xxi. p. 112. D.°

Art. 32. *Cursory Remarks on the Laws with respect to the Imprisonment of Debtors.* By Henry Beard, of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Scott. 1801.

This is a sensible and well-written pamphlet; in which the author argues, with reason and humanity, on the inexpediency and hardship of imprisoning the honest but unfortunate debtor, for his inability to discharge the debts which he may have been compelled to contract; thus involving him in the same misery with the fraudulent, the speculating, and the designing members of society.

Some line certainly should be drawn between these opposite descriptions of persons, one deserving punishment, the other meriting compassion. The *Cessio bonorum*, in the civil law, discharged the person of the debtor from the liability to arrest, but gave the creditor the benefit of an execution against the property, when he should become more prosperous.—The subject is difficult, and connected with the dearest interests of society. It is at present receiving that attention from the legislature, which its importance requires. D.°

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 33. *A compendious Dictionary of the Holy Bible:* exhibiting a biographical History of the Persons; a geographico-historical Account of the Places; a literal, critical, and systematical Description of other Objects, whether natural, artificial, civil, religious, or military, including the Significations of the Hebrew and other Words occurring therein: Likewise a brief View of the Figures and Metaphors of Holy Writ. To which is added an

Appendix, containing Essays on various Biblical Subjects, and a Chronological Table of Scripture History. Second Edition, considerably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 588. 7s. Boards. Button. 1800.

A work of this kind, executed with learning, fidelity, and judgment, cannot fail of being extensively beneficial; and, even if it should be somewhat deficient in these characteristics, it may still prove very serviceable to numbers. The larger volumes of this nature are out of the reach of the generality of readers, a circumstance which renders compendiums like the present desirable; and this work, notwithstanding all the assistance of prior writers, has not been accomplished without much exertion. We learn that the first impression has received *liberal encouragement;* which we hear with pleasure, as far as it leads us to conclude that there are many who are disposed to consult the scriptures, and who wish for information concerning them: but, if it be asked whether this dictionary embraces any particular human scheme of systematic divinity, we must answer in the affirmative. John Calvin, and John Gill, appear to be here the almost inspired directors. The more peculiar terms and phrases of scripture are confidently, and without hesitation, explained in conformity to Calvinistic ideas, even to the terrific and horrible doctrine of reprobation:—a doctrine so repugnant to all sentiments not merely of benevolence but of justice, that if a man does really admit it into his belief, it is not easy to suppose that, though safe himself, he could have any true peace or satisfaction in existence. In a book of this kind, no one should presume thus to dictate and assert, although he may endeavour to explain. While we allow, therefore, the advantage which general readers may derive from this publication, they are to remember that, in the instances to which we have alluded, they are not implicitly to receive the professed explications here stated as certain truth. Many writers, to say the least, *equally* learned, intelligent, judicious, and faithful, have given very different accounts.

An Appendix contains eight essays, 'the principal subjects of which are the inspiration or divine authority of the books of the Old and New Testament; the internal and external evidences of Christianity; Jesus Christ, the sum and substance of the scriptures; the Reformation; the manner of interpreting the sacred oracles adopted by the Jews, with short notices relative to the Mishna, Gemarah, &c.; Jewish confession of faith; Christian authors who have written on any titles of the traditional laws of the Jews.' To these is added an account of the late missions to foreign countries, with a chronological table. Of the above essays, that on the Reformation seems to be one of the best: the Jewish confession, in thirteen articles, is extracted from Buxtorf's treatise "*De Synagoga Judaica;*" this, and the article relative to the Jews, are rather curious; and the others also contain several useful remarks, intermixed with some which are less necessary and less satisfactory.—The two little maps and the three prints will be pleasing to some readers: but the Danish subject of the last print requires to be fairly related and well authenticated.

Art. 34. *Twelve Sermons*, by John Grose, A. M. F. A. S. Curate of the united Parishes of St. Margaret Pattens and St. Gabriel Fenchurch, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 191. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1800.

Perhaps the best account which we can give of this volume will be conveyed in the words of its author, who thus speaks of the discourses here submitted to the public:

'Instead of affecting any claim to literary merit, they are only exhibited as a part of those professional labours in which the writer is constantly engaged. Whether amidst the numerous works of genius and celebrity which dignify the present age, this humble effort may be considered an intrusion, must be left to the decision of the candid and impartial. If a sincere and ardent wish, to promote the interests of religion and virtue, to recommend internal piety and practical holiness, and to urge the importance of religion as seated in the heart and amending the life; if these motives will furnish a sufficient apology for giving publicity to this work, they are readily offered, with a hope that the plea will not be altogether inadmissible or unjust. The doctrines which are principally enforced in these discourses are, the fallen state of human nature—the turpitude and guilt of sin—the purity and extent of the moral law—the absolute need of an expiatory atonement for sin—and the full, finished, and perfect redemption, which Christ hath accomplished for the guilty.—And, whilst they point out from the authority of holy writ, that Christ is the way, the truth, and the life—and the only name given under heaven whereby we can be saved—they no less recommend to our serious attention, the *morality* of the gospel, and the inseparable union of faith and practice. While they assert the absolute need of regenerating grace, and the blessed agency of the Holy Spirit, they uniformly urge the importance of cultivating those Christian graces, which peculiarly adorn our holy religion.'

Such, says Mr. Grose, are the prominent features of these sermons; which, he adds very justly, are written in strict conformity to the articles, homilies, and liturgy of the English establishment.

Several just observations, useful and valuable sentiments, and impressive admonitions, are dispersed through the volume, expressed in good language, though of rather a declamatory kind. On some occasions, perhaps, the author's reflections or assertions might not stand the trial of criticism, of fact, and of experience: but we forbear from such minute examination, wishing success to every really well-intended attempt to serve and improve mankind. Hi.

Art. 35. *Sermons on various Subjects and Occasions.* By Alexander Grant, D. D. Minister of the English Episcopal Chapel at Dundee. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Ginger. 1800.

Dr. Grant appears to have much of the air, the fluency, and the spirit of many of his brethren in the Scotch establishment, from which he dissents. Thirty-six sermons compose the two volumes, the subjects of which we do not enumerate, as they are merely denominated by the texts of scripture on which they separately treat. Their language is plain, serious, and suitable; their prevalent characteristic is that of orthodoxy according to the doctrine of the English church: but their full bent and scope are practical.

In the second volume, we find sermons on Good Friday, Easter, Ascension, Whitsunday; and in the first, one on Christmas day: they comport with the seasons appropriated by ecclesiatical direction, and are applied to instructive purposes. Indeed, though this writer takes frequent opportunity of vindicating that mode of faith and worship to which he has attached himself, we must repeat that the great drift of these volumes is to advance piety and virtue in all their branches; no doctrines or professions being considered as of any worth but in such a connection. On Matth. xxiv. 36. *Of that day and hour knoweth no man*, &c. we have an agreeable and improving discourse respecting our ignorance of futurity, without recurring to the difficulty which attends the passage, on comparing it with the parallel text in Mark. That Dr. G. is a man of knowlege, and of learning, appears by references to antient historians and other authors. That striking passage of Plato, in which the philosopher seems to express his wish, and to intimate his hope, that some divine instructor might arise to enlighten mankind, is particularly noticed. **Hi.**

POETRY, &c.

Art. 36. *A Poetical Epistle to Benjamin Count Rumford*, Knight of the White Eagle, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes. 1801.

It is probable that the worthy Bavarian Count did not expect to be *roasted*, for his economical culinary inventions, by a bard

'whose hempen string, alack!
Serves as a substitute for spit and jack:'

but P. P. considering him as delicious game, hangs him on his line, and turns him round before as fierce a fire as he can make in the kitchen-range of his satiric Muse. The *Royal Institution*, also, after being abundantly peppered, is placed on the poetical grid-iron, and in this situation furnishes a very ludicrous exhibition. We shall copy the poet's invocation to his Muse on this occasion, that our readers may judge of the style of this humourous performance:

'Muse, at the sound of RUMFORD, *raise* thy voice,
And bid our kitchen furniture rejoice!
Tho' scant our store, a hempen string, alack
(A simple substitute for spit and jack,)
A knife and fork, a dish, a spoon and platter,
Shall *stir their stumps*, and make a jovial clatter;
The broom shall hop, as merry as a *grig;*
And, pleas'd, the dainty dishclout dance a jig;
Expressing thus in gratitude their souls
To him whose wisdom saves us *pecks* of coals;
And means (for PITT's d—mn'd taxes this require)
To teach us soon to roast *without a fire.*
Friend to thy fame, (and may it last thee long!)
Tho' G. and BANKS grow jealous of the song;
Howe'er its praise may wound some COURTLY FOLK,
That song shall thunder to the MAN OF SMOKE!'

P. P.'s fingers still itch to be at his old sport: but we caution him against playing any more with ——. A single letter may mean too much; and a line, though it wants a syllable, may be too long for him. As Poetry and Prudence, however, have seldom been known to sleep in the same garret, we offer this hint with no very sanguine hope of reforming this too facetious Bard. **Mo-y.**

Art. 37. *A Rainy Day*, or Poetical Impressions during a Stay at Brighthelmstone in the Month of July, 1801. By James Boaden. 4to. 2s. Egerton.

We cannot compliment Mr. Boaden on having diffused much poetical sun-shine over his Rainy Day, nor on having excited vivid impressions of the brilliancy of his genius. In our opinion, he excels neither in his subjects nor in his verse; and sometimes he is deficient even in grammar. Such lines as the following we might have expected from the title:

——— 'Better on the downs
Where health may come, though fortune fly away;—
Than in the hells of London, where the knave
Purses the plunder of a thousand fools,
Sallow and wasting o'er the midnight lamp:'

but we could not suppose that the circumstance of there being at Worthing two innkeepers, opposite to each other, one named *Bacon* and the other *Hogsflesh*, would have been the subject of comment, and have produced an apostrophe to *Chance*:

——— 'I must smile
To see thy freaks exemplified ev'n here.
Two houses catch the eye upon the shore,
By landlords kept, with names ordain'd to meet,
Bacon and Hogsflesh - - - Does it not exceed
Contrivance far? Thus have I seen full oft
Two flitches hang in opposition proud,
The same in nature, but of different sides.'

He who cannot write better than this, 'be whom it may,' as Mr. B. ungrammatically expresses himself, will not chase from our minds the gloom of 'a rainy day.' **Do**

Art. 38. *The Canonization of Thomas - - - - Esq.* who has lately erected at East L-----h, Dorset, a Monastery and therein established a Body of Monks. The Stanzas by Sternhold and Hopkins, Poets Laureat to the Monastery. The Notes by Addison, Abp. Tillotson, Hume, Duigenan, Rennell, Bp. Newton, Voltaire, Bp. Sherlock, and Judge Blackstone. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kirby, &c. 1801.

An unmerciful satire on the poor, old, tatter'd, worn-out harlot of Babylon, whose cap is here torn, and whose petticoats are most grievously (we had almost said *prophanely*) rumpled by Verse-man and Prose-man. The efforts of the former, humourously armed with weapons cast in the molds of Sternhold and Hopkins, have treated us with a good laugh, at the expence of his HOLINESS and the CONCLAVE. The immediate occasion of this their meeting in solemn convocation,

vocation, however, must be *seriously* given in the words of the preface to the present publication:

'The Monastery alluded to in the following lines, is a large pile of brick building, erected at great expence, on the Southern coast. It has a chapel, cloisters, dormitory, images, and all the usual apparatus of popish superstition. The chapel, which is elegantly neat, is furnished with seats for about forty monks; of which number, between twenty and thirty are already assembled. Walls, inclosing about an acre, encompass the edifice: round these, a large allotment of land, amounting to several acres, is fenced in for the use of the monks, who often appear there in the habit of their order.

'The number of persons at this place, who within these few years, have embraced the Romish faith, is very considerable: the contagion has spread, and is spreading into the neighbouring villages.

'The Court of Rome, ever intent on the best means of extending its influence, has always zealously promoted the establishment of monasteries: on these it has relied, not merely for the gaining of converts, but for the acquisition even of territory.'

Whether there be in fact sufficient ground for so much alarm as is here expressed, on account of the Dorsetshire monastery, we are not informed, farther than by the brief information here given with respect to its real design and probable consequences: but, on the whole, we may recommend this motley tract to the perusal of the good protsetant reader; who may think, with the author, that at least the *politics* of the church of Rome, to say nothing of her *religion*, ought ever to be unremittingly opposed by careful and vigilant protestant watchmen.

With respect to the droll story here told, in Sternholdian verse, of the *canonization* of the pious founder of Lulworth monastery, and how far the matter is founded on any *actual proceedings*, we must wait, with patience, for that satisfactory information which this pleasant alarmist does not afford us.

POLITICS, *&c.*

Art. 39. *Considerations on the Right of the Clergy of England to a Seat in Parliament.* By a Member of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 55. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies, 1801.

In this pamphlet, much assiduity is exerted to prove that the clergy cannot claim a seat in parliament, on the principle of representation being a natural and inherent right;—that there never was a moment in which their right to a seat and a voice in the House of Commons was either expressly declared or could be justly inferred;—and that it would be impolitic, and inconsistent with the sacred engagements of the beneficed clergy, to create such a right for them To establish these positions, the author reasons on natural and communicable rights, explores the antient records and usages of parliament, and discusses the nature of the clerical functions: but, throughout his examination of this subject, he is more ingenious and legally learned than argumentatively convincing. It is unnecessary here to wander into disquisitions on abstract rights, or to examine the convocations to parliament by Edred or Ina. The question respecting the eligi-

bility of the clergy to a seat in the Commons House of Parliament lies, as the lawyers say, in a nutshell. While holding a cure of souls, and under an obligation to parochial residence, they ought not to have a seat in parliament; since the duties of the two offices are incompatible with each other. This is evident. The only point to be debated is, *Must the clerical character be considered as indelible?*—*Yes*, is the answer which this gentleman is inclined to give; though he urges nothing but the decision of the canon law in its support. The priestly profession was not regarded in such a light by the antient Romans, for nothing was more common with them than for a man to be a *Flamen* one year, and to be in a civil office the next; indeed, to act as priest and legislator at the same time, for with them the priesthood was not an order;—and perhaps, if the subject were calmly debated, we should be inclined to allow that it is as impolitic as it is tyrannical to oblige a man, who has once put on a black coat, to wear it all the days of his life whether he will or not, whether inclined or disinclined to the sacred profession. Mo-y.

Art. 40. *The Letters of Fabius to the Right Hon. William Pitt*, on his proposed Abolition of the Test, in favour of the Roman Catholics of Ireland. With an Appendix containing Mr. Pitt's Speech in the Debate of 1790. 8vo. 2s. Cobbett and Morgan.

Of the six letters which compose this publication, four have already appeared in a public news-paper; the others, and a preface, have been added, to complete the author's view of the subject. The abolition of the test is strenuously resisted throughout, as dangerous in the extreme; and great pains are taken to prove that 'Christianity is guilty of no novelty in promoting a connection of the altar with the state:'—but, supposing Christianity to have promoted such a connection, she has been only a servile imitator of idolatry. The matter in debate, however, is not whether she is countenanced by idolatrous example in doing this, but whether she has done it at all? If the authority of the Greeks and Romans be in support of a religious establishment connected with civil power, Fabius ought to have known that their practice was quite the reverse of that for which he contends respecting the test required of the Irish Catholics. The Roman Government, though maintaining the established worship at Rome, did not insist on enforcing by civil disqualifications the favourite gods of the capitol on the inhabitants of the provinces; nor on those parts of the empire in which the majority of the inhabitants were accustomed to a different ceremonial. Odious as the Jews were at Rome, their worship was not proscribed in Judea; nor do we any where find that it was necessary for a Jew to partake of an idolatrous feast, before he could be admitted to any civil employment.—We shall not now inquire into the policy of such tests, which are here considered as so necessary to religion and good government; we shall only observe that they are not justified by the authority of antiquity. D.º

Art. 41. *An Address to the British Volunteers and my Countrymen*, respecting the threatened Invasion of England by French Usurpers. By a Volunteer and a Plain Englishman. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Calculated

Calculated to stimulate a vigorous resistance to the French, if they were to attempt an invasion of this country. We trust that the feelings of every Englishman would prompt him to do his duty on such an occasion.

Mo-y.

Art. 42. *Thoughts on Poor Houses*, with a View to their general Reform, particularly that of Salisbury, comparing it with the more improved ones of Shrewsbury, Isle of Wight, Hull, Boldre, &c. and Deductions drawn, useful to other Poor-Houses. To which is added, an Account of the Population of Salisbury, with Observations thereon. By Henry Wansey, F. A. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

If the system of poor-houses must be continued, it is of great importance to construct them on good principles, and to exercise over them the most perfect superintendance. Mr. Wansey's Thoughts respect this point. He has examined the subject with care; and other towns besides Salisbury may benefit by his advice. Among many curious and important facts here exhibited, it appears that the population of Salisbury is, according to the late census, 6967;*—that the poor's rate amounts to 7249*l.* or more than a guinea *per* head on every inhabitant of the city;—that this whole expence is sustained by 878 house-keepers (out of 1353, the rest being excused through poverty) averaging 8*l.* per house:—that of this sum of 7249*l.*, 2436*l.* are expended on the out-poor, leaving 4813*l.* for the expence of the House, in which the average number for the last three years has been 216.: that is, more than 22*l.* per annum for each pauper, over and above what is earned by his labour †. Attention may diminish this expence, but we fear that the system itself is radically bad; and that a new act on the old principles would only palliate, not remove, all the evils respecting the poor which exist in this country.

D?

Art. 43. *Remarks on the Situation of the Poor in the Metropolis*, as contributing to the Progress of Contagious Diseases; with a Plan for the Institution of Houses of Recovery, for Persons infected by Fever. Published by the Desire and at the Expence of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard, Becket, &c.

In populous cities, the indigent classes generally find very wretched accommodations. Where space is valuable, little is allotted to the poor, and that little is badly situated. They are crouded together in dark courts and narrow alleys, in cellars, or in garrets; where damps, stagnated air, and accumulated filthiness, injure their health, and facilitate the progress of contagious diseases. When fever makes its way into these receptacles of poverty, it is observed to maintain

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* The population of Sarum appears to have continued the same for many years. In 1695, by a census then taken, it was 6976, in 1775 it was 6856. Mr. W. says that its population would decline fast, were it not for new settlers.

† There are other demands on the poor's-rate, besides the poor-house and out-poor: but, after every deduction, the charge is enormous.

a durable and wide-wasting empire. This is a fact which medical men have ascertained to complete conviction; and perhaps in the metropolis, and other large cities, a plan similar to the institution here recommended is the only one which can be adopted: viz. to establish detached houses of recovery in airy situations, for the reception of fever patients, and to white-wash and cleanse their lodgings, so as to remove all remains of infection, before the patients return to them, or they are occupied by new lodgers. It is for the benefit of the rich that the poor should be healthy: for "*the Head cannot say to the Foot, I have no need of thee.*"

The dedication of this benevolent pamphlet is subscribed *T. A. Murray, Greville Street.* Mo-y.

Art. 44. *Democracy the Cause of the present Dearth and Sufferings of the Poor.* By J. W. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

Of all the assigned causes of the present high price of the necessaries of life, the one here suggested is the most curious, yet we doubt whether it merits a serious examination. Has Democracy shut up the Bank? Did it dictate the Duke of Portland's letter? Has it the command of the elements, the power of peace and war, or even a voice in the Corn Exchange? If by Democracy we are to understand not the supposed leaders of sedition, but the Mob, the idea is absurd in the extreme; for the populace, if it were prudent to allow its interference, would soon apply a remedy to the evil of dearness. The disaffected may be accused of fomenting the discontent of the people: but this is very different from their being the cause of it; and even here their success has been very inconsiderable, since not only Judges in their charges to grand juries, but even the late minister in the House of Commons, have complimented the people on their forbearance and peaceable disposition. D.o

Art. 45. *Refutation of certain Misrepresentations relative to the Nature and Influence of Bank Notes*, and of the Stoppage of Issues in Specie at the Bank of England, upon the Prices of Provisions, as stated in the Pamphlets of Walter Boyd, Esq. and Mr. William Frend. By T. S. Surr. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hurst.

Refutation is not the word which exactly belongs to the kind of counter-reasoning employed in this pamphlet; which displays more of carping and assertion than of argument, and in which the subject is by no means fairly met and discussed. It is not correct to mention 'the close connection which exists between this company (the Bank of England) and the *nation*;'—it is declamatory to tell Mr. F. that, before he compares paper-money in England with the paper-money of France, he should prove that the Chancellor of the Exchequer in England, and the Dictator Robespierre were synonymous terms;—and it is nugatory to inform us that there exists no power which can *command* an issue of Bank notes, when we all know that there is a *power* which has suspended the payment of them in specie. The simple questions here are; Cannot paper-money be created with more facility than the coinage of precious metals? Does not the stoppage of issues in specie at the Bank promote the creation of paper-money by that great company, and by the subordinate Banks? and Must not the facility,

facility, with which paper-money is created, necessarily operate to raise the price of provisions? Other Bankers are not restrained from dealing in provisions, if the Bank of England be; and the very competition of their paper in the market must produce the effect of advancing the price. Nor is this all:—but we must abstain from the discussion: suffice it for us to observe that, while we allow that it may have been politic in the minister to stop the issues of specie at the Bank, we cannot with Mr. Surr deem this circumstance a proof of the *actual prosperity* of the empire; nor subscribe to his assertion that it has produced no more effect on the prices of provisions, than 'the momentary transit of the smallest cloud between the earth and sun produces on the vegetation of our soil and the courses of our rivers.' Mo-y.

Art. 46. *A Few Reflections on Recent Events*, concluding with a Defence of Sir Hyde Parker's Convention with Denmark. By William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1801.

Our conduct towards the Northern Confederacy is here applauded as not less magnanimous than successful; and the convention with Denmark, after the victory of Copenhagen, is justified on the score both of generosity and of policy. D°

Art. 47. *A Comparative View of the Public Finances*, from the beginning to the Close of the late Administration. By William Morgan, F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

This pamphlet is full of the most interesting matter, to every man of property in the country; to every man who has its welfare at heart; and to every one who wishes to make himself acquainted with its real state. Mr. M. has divided his remarks into six sections. The first treats 'on the additions which have been annually made to the public debt during the late administration;' and it states the whole capital of the debt created during Mr. Pitt's administration to be 331,881,816l.—The 2d discusses 'the comparative annual expenditure of the present and the two preceding wars,' making the *whole amount* of the *war establishment*, in the first five years of the present, and of the two preceding wars, to be—for the years 1755 to 1759, 43,962,072 l.—for the years 1778 to 1782, 87,992,557 l.—for the years 1793 to 1797, 129,204,824l.—The 3d chapter is 'a comparative view of the sums which have been funded, and of the taxes which have been imposed towards paying the interest on those sums during the present and the two preceding wars.' Here the ex-minister is accused of creating a needless capital, for which the country has never received an equivalent; and Mr. M. states the difference between the *money actually received* and the *stock created* during the present war to be 107,679,045 l.—The 4th section relates to 'the different expedients which have been employed for raising the supplies, and the ineffectual provisions which have been made for paying the interest of the debt incurred in the present war.' Under this head, Mr. M. endeavours to shew the *unsolidity* of Mr. Pitt's *solid* system of finance.—In sect. 5. he treats on 'the Consolidated Fund,' of which such use has been made by Mr. Pitt in opening his budgets: but it appears, by Mr. M.'s statements, that, in the course of five years, above

ten millions have been raised to pay the difference between the *estimated* and the *real* surplus of this fund.—The last section considers 'the whole amount of the national debt, and the future peace establishment of the country.' What will the reader say, when he sees the national debt in April 1801 stated at 558,418,628l.; and is told that the interest on it and the unfunded debt, with charges of management, will require taxes to be annually raised to the amount of twenty-five millions; and that our future peace establishment will require the enormous annual sum of 31,745,833l.? Mr. M. indeed makes it to amount, when all items are included, to even more than this.

In contemplating Mr. Pitt as a financier, Mr. Morgan is of opinion that, if an inscription be made to his memory, it will not be on the *pillar* but on the *ruins* of Public Credit.

It is proper to add, that Mr. M.'s statements and computations are derived from the accounts of the revenue and expenditure laid before the House of Commons.'

Art. 48. *Remarks on Mr. Morgan's Comparative View of the Public Finances* from the Beginning to the Close of the late Administration. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Wright. 1801.

If Mr. Morgan "exerts all his energies" in reprobating the financial conduct of the late administration, he has here called forth in its defence a zeal and an energy equal to his own: but, though this gentleman, who professes himself to be the friend of Mr. Pitt, follows the author of the "Comparative View" through all his statements, and in some places appears to have detected errors, he has not proved what he intemperately asserts; that 'Mr. M.'s studied misrepresentations are of such a nature, as could only proceed from a very malignant disposition, or a very unhappy temper.'—We shall report some of the writer's counter-statements. He first accuses Mr. M. of exaggerating the sum added to the Public Debt during Mr. Pitt's administration, observing that the 28,739,753l., which were funded soon after Mr. Pitt came into power, ought not fairly to be charged to him, because it was the winding up of the expences of the American war.

In opposition to the table given by Mr. M. in his 3d section, the following is exhibited in order to be compared with it:

The money borrowed from 1776 to 1783 amounts to	£.69,500,000
The annual charges thus incurred for interest and annuities were, being at the rate of 5l. 9s. 4d. per cent. - - - -	3,802,000
The money borrowed from 1793 to 1801, including Navy and Exchequer bills funded, amounts to	192,000,000
The annual charge thus incurred for interest and annuities, being at the rate of 5l. 3s. 9d. per cent. is	9,960,000
The difference of the rate is 5s. 7d. per cent. which, on 192,000,000l. borrowed in the present war, amounts to - - - -	536,000

It is observed, in a note, that the annuities in the American war were generally shorter than those given in the present: but this difference

ference is not calculated; and though it is farther remarked that the *bonuses* of lottery tickets, which have not been attached to any loan of this war, ought also to be taken into the account, no estimate of them is made.

Mr. M.'s account of deficiencies is denied; and on the subject of the Consolidated Fund, he is accused of attempting to lead his readers into error.

It is suggested in the "Comparative View," that it is probable that the Revenue will experience a considerable falling off in the event of a peace; to which we here find the following reply, not very consolatory to the purchasers of the Land-tax; 'There seems no reason to apprehend a deficiency in peace-time, when it is considered, that in the course of a few years the operation of the sale of the Land-tax will be sufficiently mature to facilitate the collection of a very considerable revenue by means of a new one.'

This may be a very cunning scheme, but can it be an honest one?

The sum-total of the debt, as stated by Mr. M., is allowed to be tolerably correct: but the remarker thinks that sufficient credit is not given to the late Minister for the singular provisions which he has made for liquidating it, and by which despondency ought to be removed.

The probable amount of the Peace Establishment is not here particularly calculated; the author only telling us that he 'conceives himself justified in saying that Mr. M. has exaggerated the amount of the interest on the public debt, funded and unfunded, to nearly two millions above its probable amount.' Supposing this to be the fact,—and we have little besides supposition for the conjecture,—the annual sum to be raised will be 30,000,000l.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 49. *Human Longevity*: recording the Name, Age, Place of Residence, and Year of the Decease of 1712 Persons, who attained a Century and upwards, from A. D. 66 to 1799, comprizing a Period of 1733 Years. With Anecdotes of the most remarkable. By James Easton. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Printed at Salisbury by the Author, and sold in London by White.

We do not perceive much use in the collection before us. Of the majority of the persons noticed in it, little is known; and the anecdotes of some of them, which have appeared in other works, are here very indifferently abridged. The editor seems, indeed, to be persuaded that long life is the greatest of human blessings, and that to have existed for a century is a sufficient distinction for any mortal. We would recommend to him Swift's chapter on the Struldbruggs, in Gulliver's Travels, and Juvenal's Xth Satire, as correctives of this crude notion. Extreme old age is perhaps the most forlorn and desolate of all conditions. A person in this state becomes dependent on a new race, whose habits and opinions are totally different from his own, and who regard him as an incumbrance, and even as an usurper on the common course of nature. If the protracted existence of many individuals were marked by intellectual exertions, we should feel a strong interest in this subject: but Mr. Easton acknowleges that most of his

his *Macrobii* were farmers, labourers, and persons who lived, as he terms it, according to nature. Nothing can be learnt from the records of such vegetating existence.—Were we to regard this list of long-livers as complete, we should consider the investigation as still less important; for we see, from the very title-page, that they do not amount to one in a century: but if *two* persons in a century might be supposed to live to an hundred years of age, what can be deduced from the fact? Nothing, but a slight exception to a general rule.

On the whole, therefore, we cannot flatter Mr. Easton with the hope of *literary* longevity.

Fer.

Art. 50. *Sequel to the English Reader:* or, Elegant Selections in Prose and Poetry. Designed to improve the Highest Class of Learners in reading; to establish a Taste for just and accurate Composition; and to promote the Interests of Piety and Virtue. By Lindley Murray. 12mo. pp. 376. 4s. 6d. bound. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Art. 51. *Introduction to the English Reader:* or, a Selection of Pieces in Prose and Poetry, calculated to improve the Younger classes of Learners, in reading, and to imbue their Minds with the Love of Virtue. With Rules and Observations for assisting Children to read with Propriety. By Lindley Murray. 12mo. pp. 210. 3s. 6d. bound. Longman and Rees. 1801.

Animated by the favourable reception of "the English Reader" (of which we gave a short account in vol. 29. p. 464. N. S.) Mr. Murray here pursues the same object, and has not only compiled a judicious and well-arranged supplement for the *higher* classes of learners, but, in order to complete his undertaking, has prepared an introduction to it for the *younger* classes. If there be a little apparent inversion of order in having the introduction *follow* the work and its continuation, we are to remember that it is not uncommon for the *approach* to a house and the *preface* to a book to be the last thing executed. We have no doubt that the public will be pleased with the additions to both the fronts of the original building; and, as the whole is so truly useful and well arranged, they will not be angry with Mr. M. because the several parts have not appeared in the regular order of time. Displaying a sound judgment, and actuated by the purest motives, this gentleman is indeed intitled to the fullest praise. In the preface to the *introduction*, he observes that 'care has been taken to render the language of all the pieces correct and perspicuous, that the young learner may improve in style as well as in reading, and insensibly acquire a taste for accurate composition.—To imbue the tender mind with a love of virtue and goodness, is an especial object of the present work; and with this view the pieces have been scrupulously selected, and where necessary, purified from every word and sentiment that could offend the most delicate mind.'

Such a compilation may be safely recommended, and put into the hands of youth; and the *rules and observations for assisting them to read with propriety* form to it a very suitable introduction. Mr. M. endeavours

endeavours to correct those errors which children are apt to commit, and gives some directions which (if observed) cannot fail to make good readers. They are short; and it would be of service to young persons if they would imprint them on their memory. **Mo-y.**

Art. 52. *The Power of Religion on the Mind, in Retirement, Affliction, and at the Approach of Death*, exemplified in the Testimonies and Experience of Persons distinguished by their Greatness, Learning, or Virtue. By Lindley Murray. The Tenth Edition, corrected and greatly enlarged. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1801.

That "examples draw where precepts fail" is a truth which has been acknowleged in all ages and nations; and on the strength of this principle, Mr. Murray has had recourse to experience in evincing the power and importance of Religion. He has thus furnished an interesting collection of testimonies; and we wonder not that a work so instructive and amusing, as well as impressive, should have been generally patronized. It is a book which may be read with profit by persons in all situations; and with the rising generation it may answer the double purpose of improving them in biography and in virtue. This *tenth* edition is so augmented as to have become almost a new work. 'Twenty-two characters have been added, and a few passages of inferior importance have been curtailed. Almost every former piece has been augmented by explanatory matter, and the language throughout carefully corrected.'

The work is divided into ten chapters, each of which contains several biographical sketches; and to the whole is subjoined a serious conclusion, in which Mr. M. observes that 'the reader has been presented, in the preceding collection, with the testimonies and experience of a number of his fellow-creatures, of different periods, countries, professions, and situations in life; all uniting in their attestation to the power and excellence of true religion, as our surest guide and consolation through time, and the only means of securing eternal happiness.'

If Mr. Murray acquires not the highest literary fame by such publications, they do credit to the excellence of his heart, and prove him to be solicitous in promoting the best interests of man. **D.o**

Art. 53. *An Appeal to the Public*, on the Controversy between Hannah More, the Curate of Blagdon, and the Rev. Sir A. Elton. By Thomas Bere, A M. Rector of Butcomb, near Bristol. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1801.

In this his second publication, Mr. Bere vigorously defends himself against the attacks of Sir A. Elton: for which see M. Rev. for June, p. 215.—Unable as *we* are to decide in regard to the controverted *facts* on which the charges of misconduct are brought by the contending parties, we can speak of them only in the most general terms: but, at present, it appears to us somewhat more clearly, that Mr. B. has much reason for his complaints of injurious treatment. With respect to the *manner* in which he exerts his literary talents, (which are by no means inconsiderable,) we think that every candid reader of this tract will allow that his style and language, in general, are by no means inconsistent with those of a gentleman, and a scholar.

Art.

Art. 54. *A Statement of Facts relative to Mrs. More's Schools*, occasioned by some late Misrepresentations. 12mo. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

We have here a "cloud of witnesses," who, it may be presumed, have been called forth by Mr. Bere's above mentioned publications, and who unite in the exculpation of Mrs. More from the charge of encouraging the growth of Methodism, by the tenor of her conduct in the order and discipline of her Sunday Schools. The testimony of these witnesses is here laid before the public, in the form of Letters and Certificates from nine of the neighbouring Clergymen, of so many different parishes; all concurring in direct contradiction to the representations of the Curate of Blagdon and others. Particular notice is here taken of several alleged misrepresentations in Mr. B.'s *Appeal*, which are flatly denied.

Art. 55. *The Blagdon Controversy;* or, Short Criticisms on the late Dispute between the Curate of Blagdon and Mrs. Hannah More, relative to Sunday Schools, and Monday private Schools. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

This anonymous Layman assumes rather the tone and style of a legal advocate, than those of a theological investigator. His motive for standing forth, as a pleader in this cause, is thus expressed in the outset of his observations:

'The public curiosity having been much excited by what has passed at Blagdon, relative to Sunday Schools for children, and Monday private Schools for grown-up people, I have been induced to put together the following short observations, the result of deliberate judgment in a matter become a public concern, wherein all the parties engaged are equally strangers to me; I hope, therefore, that the opinion I have given will be found unbiassed by favour or affection on one hand, or by prejudice or dislike on the other.'

The writer exerts his abilities (which are not to be despised,) wholly on the part of Mr. Bere, and of those who adhere to his side of the general question. He speaks rather slightly of the literary merit of Sir A. E. and of the evidence of other champions of the opposite party; and he is of opinion that Mrs. More would have made a much better figure in the contest, had she employed her own talents in the maintenance of this very singular warfare. He adds that the event might have proved much more favourable to her literary reputation than it now promises to be, from the efforts of her apologists, who have *hurt* her cause by supporting it 'with more zeal than judgment;' and who 'have been mere panegyrists, in a matter which required plain statements of facts, and no ornaments or figures of speech.'

Art. 56. *A Letter to the Rev. T. Bere*, Rector of Butcomb. By the Rev. J. Boak, Rector of Brockley. 8vo. 4d. Hazard, Bath.

Mr. Boak is one of the nine Clergymen whose written testimonials in favour of Mrs. More's management of her Sunday Schools, &c. are inserted in the published *Statement*, &c. just noticed by us. The subject of this letter to Mr. Bere is the refusal of that gentleman to send a satisfactory answer to a preceding letter from Mr. Boak, relative

tive to the moral character of one of Mr. Bere's principal witnesses against one of Mrs. M.'s schoolmasters. This branch of the Blagdon controversy seems to be no otherwise interesting to the public, than as it may tend to weaken the power and force of Mr. Bere's exertions in support of his charges against Mrs. M.'s management of her popular institutions; and so far this little tract seems likely to produce some effect.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 57. *Preached before the University of Cambridge.* August 24, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. Fellow of Sidney Sussex College. 4to. 1s. Hurst.

This discourse is intitled, '*the necessity of union among Christians*:' —but we must confess that it breathes too much of the spirit of the High Priest to obtain our unlimited approbation. We observe some sensible and ingenious reflections in illustrating the idea of the church, under the figure of a *body*: but we are rather at a loss, on the whole, to perceive the writer's aim, or what beneficial instruction is to be derived from it. The latter part of his text (Eph. iv. 4, 5, 6,) seems to have gained very little if any of his attention.—The style is good, and free from that whimsical cast which might rather have been expected from the *epistle dedicatory* to the reader, which is composed in a style of formality and quaintness according with past rather than with present times. **Hi.**

Art. 58. *Preached before the University of Cambridge*, November 2, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

This discourse bears for its title, *The afflictions of England a warning from God.* The author writes with a very serious spirit; impressed, apparently to a high degree, by a view of his country's present distress, and the signs of the times. He offers some just and pertinent remarks concerning nations, considered as subjects of the divine moral government; which he briefly illustrates from Scripture history, combined with particular declarations and the general tenor of the sacred writings. Though, however, he writes sensibly, and with affection, we must acknowlege ourselves rather disappointed as we drew towards the conclusion: he calls on us, indeed, 'to be obedient to the laws both of church and state,' but he does not, as might be expected, recommend that stedfast integrity and virtue, founded on rational piety, which appear requisite for the peace and hope of individuals, and the welfare of society. **Hi.**

Art. 59. *On Romans, ch.* xiii. *v.* 8. "Owe no Man any thing;" preached before the University at Cambridge, in January, 1800. By George Whitmore, B. D. Fellow and late Tutor of St. John's Colloge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

The subject of this sermon seems very seasonable, truly momentous, and of great necessity. We therefore applaud the preacher who has pronounced and published it. There are many, we fear, in our public seminaries, and out of them, and in different ranks of society, who deserve the castigation and need the advice which are here bestowed; too many, we may add, who talk highly of generosity, honour,

honour, integrity, &c. yet have not themselves common honesty. The discourse is very respectfully and properly inscribed to the noblemen and gentlemen who were lately under the tuition of the author. Happy will it prove, if they, and all others among whom it may fall, have wisdom and resolution sufficient to give that attention to its precepts which they merit;—and which on some future day, if they now pay no regard to them, will be imperiously and painfully exacted.

How just and how worthy of serious thought, although not uncommon, is the remark here exhibited;—'He, who voluntarily spends more than he can afford, is dishonest, in exact proportion to his prodigality, whether his income rise to thousands, or depend on the daily exertion of his bodily strength.'—Again, how true the reflection, 'that, according to modern manners, it is not the cruel creditor, but the merciless debtor, we should complain of; and daily experience verifies the justness of the observation.'—Well does the preacher say to youth, especially in the seats of learning; 'without dignity of character, and propriety of conduct, the brightest acquirements in science serve only to render their possessors more illustriously contemptible.'

We can only farther observe that what is said, p. 9. concerning *personal utility* or private *happiness* may require rather more explication; a mere selfish principle would prove but an indifferent guide of human conduct.

Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The writer of a letter from Hoxton will find an answer in our *notices* of several *impatient* correspondents in our late Reviews.

We do not recollect ever to have heard of the work intitled *Matilda*.

In answer to an inquiry respecting a publication on Mineral Waters, we have to state that the book has been on our table some months, and will receive due attention at the first opportunity.

Mr. Ingram's letter, dated in July, reached us only a few days since, and too late for farther notice at present.

We must trespass farther on the patience of our learned Correspondent at Richmond, some unavoidable circumstances having delayed the consideration of his remarks.

A note has been sent to Dr. Montucci by the post.

A letter for the Editor of the plays of Lear and Cymbeline has been transmitted to his publishers, Messrs. Robinsons.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXV. of the New Series of the MONTHLY REVIEW will be published with the Number for September next, and will contain a variety of important articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index* for the Volume.

Errors, p. 372, 427, 443.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Mémoire Historique sur la Vie et les Ecrits, &c. &c.* i. e. Historical Memoir on the Life and Writings of HORACE BENEDICT DE SAUSSURE; designed as an Introduction to the Perusal of his Works. By JEAN SENEBIER, Associated Member of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts, of several Academies and learned Societies, and Librarian at Geneva. Read before the Physical and Natural History Society of Geneva, in June 1800. 8vo. pp. 220. Geneva. 1801.

FEW spots on the surface of the globe have acquired or have deserved such distinguished celebrity, as the little territory of Geneva. Situated in the bosom of a rich and highly romantic country, and enjoying a form of government calculated, with all its imperfections, to nourish the spirit of freedom, Nature and Institution seemed to conspire alike on that happy soil to warm the imagination, and to expand and invigorate the noble faculties of the mind. Even those frequent disputes, and factious contentions, which had their source in the narrow policy of the framers of the constitution, however unfavourable they were to domestic quiet, were yet on the whole conducive to energy of character. A watchful temper was kept alive; the merits of individuals were soon discovered and brought into notice; and the youths fired with emulation, were stimulated by the most powerful motives to cultivate those talents which would lead to distinction among their fellow-citizens. Genius, perhaps, is dispensed

by the rare bounty of heaven: but all that education and example can effect was eminently conspicuous at Geneva. As the taste for reading and study pervaded every class, no where was useful information so widely diffused; even the artists themselves, being mostly engaged in the more ingenious mechanical professions, aspired with ardour to improve and refine their minds; and no city of equal extent, in modern times, has produced such a number of respectable literary characters. Nor have they wasted their time and faculties in barren erudition; since they have cultivated that species of learning which is directly applicable to the purposes of life, and which enlightens or embellishes the human character. Polite literature, and the more popular and captivating branches of natural science, have almost exclusively engaged their attention. The style of their compositions, also, seems to have derived its peculiar features from the circumstances in which they were placed. Patriotism, a passion most ardent in small free states, as it contracts the circle of its embrace, approaches to egotism and vanity. Hence that redundancy of expression, that amplification of ideas, and that continual affectation of sentiment and philosophy, which mark the productions of the Genevese.

The pamphlet now before us is a pregnant instance of the truth of the preceding remarks. M. Senebier, though respectable as a man of letters, writes in a most diffuse and inflated style, and seems for ever labouring to rise above his subject. It ought to be observed, however, in extenuation, that his discourse was read before a select body of his fellow-citizens, who, being intimately acquainted with the personal merits of the deceased, and deeply affected by the loss of such an eminent associate, were predisposed to sympathize with a tone of sentiment and mode of composition, which to the public at large will appear rhetorical, incongruous, and often extravagant. *Saussure* was certainly an ornament to Geneva, and intitled to the eulogies of his countrymen; and though his powers and attainments were not such as may raise him to the first rank of philosophers, he yet deserves a conspicuous niche in the Temple of Fame. Possessed of considerable ingenuity, regulated by a just taste and a clear and discriminating judgment, he devoted his fortune to scientific pursuits with unexampled ardour and perseverance. He displayed great sagacity in devising experiments; and the skill and precision, with which he conducted them, gave to the results a peculiar value:—but his geological observations will always be esteemed his capital performance. The patience and fortitude with which he surveyed the grand scenes of nature, the scrupulous accuracy of his remarks, unfettered and unbiassed by any hypothesis,

hypothesis, and the lively colouring of his descriptions, deserve the highest praise; and the *Travels among the Alps* * are of themselves sufficient to render their author immortal.

Horace Benedict de Saussure † was born at Geneva the 17th of February 1740. His father is known by his agricultural writings and improvements. His mother, whose maiden name was *de la Rive*, had talents, and a taste for some parts of natural history. She was extremely solicitous to fortify his constitution by early accustoming him to endure cold, and to support hardships and privations: but it may be doubted whether this scheme of education succeeded, for *Saussure* seems never to have enjoyed robust health.—When only six years of age, he gained the prize of reading at the public school; an event which made a durable impression on his infant mind, and perhaps laid the germ of his ambition to excel in literature: while the marriage of his aunt with the celebrated naturalist, *Charles Bonnet*, produced a connection most favourable to the progress of his studies. *Bonnet* styled his young relation *Emilius;* and the name was afterward repeated by *Haller*, with whom he became acquainted in 1758, on the occasion of a visit which he made at Bex, with his mother, for the purpose of consulting that eminent physician respecting the state of her health. *Haller* was then employed in botanical researches; and the youth being led to imitate him by profound admiration, a correspondence on those subjects was commenced, which was afterward regularly maintained. In 1759, *Saussure* finished his course of philosophy, and printed a thesis or physical dissertation on Fire; in which, following Franklin, he related some experiments; and explained, in a clear neat manner, the property in substances of acquiring heat from the sun in proportion to their degrees of blackness.

Much conversation occurred at Geneva in 1760, respecting some English travellers who had visited the glaciers of Chamouni; which was considered at that time as an enterprize extremely bold and dangerous. The spirit of *Saussure* led him to despise such apprehensions; and, with the consent of his parents, he undertook and accomplished a journey which has since become so frequent and so fashionable. In that same year, the chair of Mathematics being vacant, he was advised by his friends to appear as a candidate. In consequence, as he had studied this

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxv. p. 378. lxxvii. p. 532. Also *New Series*, vol. xxii. p. 530. xxiii. p. 512.

† In the present work, this name is written uniformly *Desaussure*, in compliance with the levelling fashion of France; in which vast republic, Geneva is now finally absorbed.

important science, and was even somewhat attached to it, he now resumed his application; and though he was unsuccessful, he acquitted himself at the examination with honour. Indeed, it was no mean praise to have disputed the palm of victory with such a rival as *Louis Bertrand*, a scholar of the great *Euler*.

Saussure now resumed the lighter studies, which were more congenial to him, and improved his taste by a careful perusal of the Greek and Latin poets. Yielding to his passion for botany, he discovered a material fact in the anatomy of plants, which he published, dedicating his work to *Haller*, under the title of "*Observations on the Bark of Leaves and Petals;*" a pamphlet which displays patience, accuracy, and address. This cortical netting had been confounded by all preceding observers with the epidermis.—In 1762, he obtained by competition the Professorship of Natural Philosophy at Geneva: a charge which he filled most usefully and creditably for the space of 24 years. His luminous mode of conveying instruction was enhanced by the charms of a graceful elocution: he was solicitous to establish his positions on a solid basis, and to separate truth from the glare of hypothesis: he was attentive to introduce all the new discoveries which were successively made in the several departments of natural science; and he discovered equal diligence and ingenuity in pointing out the application of the principles of philosophy to the practice of the arts, and the general business of life. Lectures so engaging could not fail to excite attention; they were frequented by all the youth of Geneva, and drew a conflux of strangers to that interesting place.

M. de Saussure had not long exercised the profession of a public teacher, when he fell desperately in love with Mademoiselle *Boissier*: but, though every thing seemed to favour the match, the period of their union was deferred by the relations of the young lady till she should have attained her 20th year. An anxious interval of two years was therefore passed; in which the desires, the hopes, and the fears of the lover were elevated to the utmost pitch. Books and science began to lose their relish; and he was tempted to resign himself to the delirium of indolent passion: but fortunately for him, this temper of mind was restrained within bounds by the uncommon exertions which he was obliged at that time to make in his public capacity. Besides his lectures in physics, he then gave a course of logic. Here his sound judgment and correct taste induced him to depart from the usual track; and discarding the miserable subtleties of scholastic pneumatology, he exhibited the art of reasoning in all its purity and simplicity.

At length, in 1765, *Saussure* was united to the object of his affections; and his domestic happiness henceforth increased every day. His wife's sisters, possessed (like herself) of beauty, virtue, and accomplishments, were married to *M. M. Turretini* and *Tronchin*; and the three families became inseparable.—An anecdote is here related which is highly honourable to the benevolent feelings of *Saussure*. A few days after his own marriage, and while that of *Turretini* was celebrating, chancing amid these joyous festivities to hear that his nurse's son was arrested as a deserter at la Roche, and about to be condemned to death, he snatched himself away, hastened thither, and pleaded so powerfully with the judges as to obtain a respite of the fatal sentence, which was afterward commuted for perpetual imprisonment.

The fruits of *Saussure*'s union were three children. His daughter, now Madame *Necker*, was a great favourite, and he bestowed infinite pains on her education. His elder son inherited the father's philosophical talents; and the younger was often his assistant, and always his comforter.

Electricity was much in vogue when our naturalist began his career. The subject was entirely suited to his taste; and he early distinguished himself by a dissertation in support of the Franklinian system, against the objections advanced by *Nollet*. He invented an electrometer, which he afterward improved into a convenient portable instrument, of great utility in his meteorological observations. Persuaded of the truth of the theory, plausible indeed, but perhaps groundless, he fixed a conductor to his house, and by degrees succeeded in introducing the use of these supposed safeguards into Geneva.

About this time, he formed the plan of travelling for the sake of improvement. He was ambitious to store his mind with the grand images of nature; and he was sensible how vivid and satisfactory is the information acquired from conversing with learned men in different countries, compared with that which is derived from the cold perusal of books. Accompanied by his wife and sisters-in-law, he set out for Paris in 1768. There he devoted his mornings to visiting the literati, and attending some courses in chemistry and experimental philosophy; and he spent his evenings in fashionable society. After some time, he left that capital with regret, proceeded through Flanders to Holland, and arrived in the month of July at Amsterdam. He viewed the cabinets and collections of curiosities in the different cities; and, notwithstanding the phlegm of the Dutch character, so strongly contrasted with the vivacity of his own, he was cordially received by the *Sçavans*: but the climate of Holland affecting his health, he was obliged to embark for England, where he arrived about the middle of Sep-

tember. At that season, he found London almost entirely deserted, and therefore made an excursion into Cornwall, to visit the mines. On his return to the metropolis, he was seized with a dangerous putrid sore throat; and he had scarcely recovered, when, going to view a glass-house, he was taken with a sudden relapse, attended with very alarming symptoms. From this second attack, however, he escaped: but his constitution suffered a severe shock. He resolved, therefore, to return home; and arriving at Paris about the beginning of 1769, he rested a few days, and then pursued his journey to Geneva. His short and inauspicious stay in England was, however, beneficial to his studies. He enriched his cabinet, saw the curiosities recently brought from the South Seas, examined the treasures of the British Museum, and formed an acquaintance with some ingenious men, among whom were Franklin and Garrick.

Though his health was far from being re-established, the Professor continued to give lectures: but, as his complaints became more complicated and obstinate, he was advised by his friends to try the beneficial effects of the climate of Italy. In 1772 he accordingly began the journey, accompanied by his wife and their little daughter. With difficulty he reached Turin: but he now mended quickly, and was able to prosecute his tour; travelling with the eyes of a philosopher, an antiquary, and a man of taste. Having traversed Tuscany, visited the isles on the shores of the Mediterranean, and passed some days within the antique walls of Volterra, he arrived at Rome; that spot so dear to every person who is in the smallest degree tinctured with erudition, or smitten with the love of the fine arts! During his stay in that venerable city, *Saussure* contracted a particular intimacy with the celebrated Father *Jaquier*, the commentator on Newton; and with Cardinal *de Bernis*, celebrated as a man of wit. The cold weather having obliged him to retire to Naples, he was delighted with its delicious climate, and with the novel aspect of a volcanic country. The conformity of tastes and studies produced an intimate friendship between him and Sir William Hamilton; and under the guidance of that experienced observer, he surveyed the Phlegræan fields, and ascended Mount Vesuvius. This was the happiest period in his life; when such a flood of ideas poured on his mind, when every thing combined to touch the heart, to invigorate the understanding, and to animate and extend the imagination.—He made some stay with his family in the isles of Ischia and Procida; where the manners and customs of the inhabitants recalled to his mind the Homeric pictures of the antient Greeks. He then embarked for Sicily, and landed

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at Palermo in the beginning of May. From Catana he descried the snowy top of Ætna; his fancy was kindled; and he determined to ascend that famous mountain. On the 5th June 1773, he reached its lofty summit: but it is more easy to conceive than to describe his feelings, when he stood on that commanding elevation, or approached the brink of the tremendous crater. By barometrical measurement, he ascertained the height above the sea to be 10,963 English feet.—Returning to Naples, he found some letters which induced him to hasten his departure. He then passed through Rome to Venice, where he stopped a short while, and formed an acquaintance with the very ingenious Father *Boscovich;* and taking the route by the Tyrol, he arrived at Geneva in the end of August.

The impression, which the awful scenes of Vesuvius and Ætna had made on his mind, determined M. *de Saussure* henceforth to devote himself to the study of geology; and with that view he performed annual journies among the Alps, crossing them in various directions, and examining their structure with scrupulous and repeated attention. He found time also for other pursuits, and for the discharge of the active duties of humanity. In the concerns of his friends and of his native city, he took the warmest interest; and for several years he held offices of trust, which he filled with singular zeal and ability. He was particularly anxious to improve the education of youth; and in 1774 he published a project for reforming the schools at Geneva. Convinced that all knowlege is obtained through the medium of the senses, he advised preceptors to gain the attention of pupils by presenting to them a series of connected facts and palpable objects; and, instead of oppressing their memory with unprofitable tasks, he sought to habituate them to the early exercise of their judgment. How far his schemes were adopted, we are not informed.

About this time, appeared the description of the *Helio-thermometer*, one of *Saussure*'s most ingenious contrivances. Having remarked the heat accummulated under a glass frame placed in the sun, he thought of a simple mode of multiplying the effect. He obtained five square cases of plane glass, regularly diminishing in size, and included one within the other, with an interval of two inches: the inmost case acquired a heat of 70 degrees of Reaumur; and by proper precautions even 88 degrees, equal to 230 by Fahrenheit's scale. An apparatus of this sort he proposed for domestic and culinary uses.

It was in 1783, while slowly recovering from a severe illness, which prevented him from undertaking his annual excursion into the Alps, that *Saussure* prepared his celebrated *Essays*

on Hygrometry * ; a work of rare and original merit, though certainly not deserving the superlative praise bestowed on it by his biographer. The hair hygrometer, or rather hygroscope, excells every preceding instrument of that sort in sensibility, exactness, and range. The numerous experiments, instituted with the view of ascertaining the affections of air and moisture, were most judiciously planned, and were executed with unrivalled delicacy and circumspection. His theories, which are but sparingly introduced, may not deserve equal encomiums; yet his fanciful notion of the existence of aqueous vesicles finds many adherents. The repeated strictures of his rival and countryman, M. *de Luc*, drew from him in 1788 an answer, which betrayed considerable acrimony. An indifferent spectator might smile to see grave philosophers so keenly disputing the respective merits of hair and of whale-bone.

In this place, we cannot forbear to observe that our own island has the credit of having at last produced a complete hygrometer, founded on demonstrative principles; an acquisition of vast importance in the infant science of meteorology. From the concise and abstract manner in which the inventor has chosen to state his proposition, we apprehend, however, that it is by no means generally or rightly understood. On a popular subject, Mr. Leslie has evinced a closeness of reasoning which rarely occurs beyond the domains of the mathematical sciences. By developing the process of evaporation, he distinguishes the true and sole cause which determines the degree of cold produced. On that simple principle, is the instrument constructed: but the idea of two counteracting balls is singularly happy, and appears to be capable of very extensive application. Hints to that effect we have observed in Mr. Nicholson's Philosophical Journal; where we also have seen a very curious paper on the absorbent powers of earthy substances, in ascertaining which the new hygrometer is successfully used. The several earths, it seems, have, in common with the saline bodies, the property in different degrees of attracting moisture from the atmosphere; those compounds which constitute mould have it to a great extent; and it is wonderfully augmented by the practice of cultivation. Some light may thus be thrown on the abstruse subject of vegetation; and a simple mode is afforded for ascertaining, with precision, the relative goodness of different soils. When such a prospect is opened, we cannot doubt that the new hygrometer will in time come into general request; and form, like the thermometer, an essential part of philosophical furniture.

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxxi. N. S. p. 213.

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The *Essays on Hygrometry* appeared at the time when all Europe was astonished and delighted by the recent discovery of air-balloons; and the author went to Lyons in the beginning of the year 1784, to see *Montgolfier*, and witness the triumph of that ingenious artist. Balloons were at first filled with smoke which was believed to contain a peculiar sort of very light gas: but M. *de Saussure*, with more sagacity, ascribed the ascensional effect merely to the rarefaction of the included air, occasioned by the great heat; a position which he proved on his return to Geneva, by shewing that the vapour extricated in the burning of straw or paper is actually denser than common air.

In 1790, was published the description of the *Cyanometer*: an elegant contrivance for ascertaining the depth of the blue colour of the sky. The object of the *Diaphanometer*, which appeared at the same time, was to measure the quantity of vapours floating between the eye and the bounds of the distant horizon. His portable *Anemometer* was another instrument, with which this ingenious philosopher enriched meteorology. It consisted of a pendulous surface, which marked the force of the wind by its degree of deflection from the vertical position.

Among the various objects to which the inquiries of *Saussure* were directed in his Alpine journeys, one of the most curious and valuable was to ascertain the temperature at different depths in the ground: but it is to be lamented that it had not occurred to him to measure the heat of springs or wells; which, where they can be found, afford results incomparably easier and more exact. During the last five years of his life, he observed at the bottom of a pit 30 feet deep, (from which the access of air was excluded,) that the greatest height of the thermometer was 52°, and the lowest $48\frac{1}{2}$°. The mean temperature is precisely what we should expect for the latitude and elevation of Geneva:—but such is the slowness with which the heat penetrates from the surface, that the thermometer did not reach its maximum till summer, nor sink to its minimum till winter.—The excessive cold, which prevails at the bottom of deep lakes, is a very remarkable and interesting fact, discovered by M. *de S.* He found the temperature, at the bottom of most of the Swiss lakes,—some of which have the prodigious depth of 160 fathoms,—to be about 41 degrees of Fahrenheit's scale; while the temperature of the Mediterranean Sea, near Cape *della Causa*, at the depth of 1900 fathoms, was $54\frac{1}{2}$°. He contents himself with stating the facts, without pretending to assign the cause; and though we think it would be easy to give a satisfactory explanation of that singular

gular phænomenon, we shall waive the consideration of it at present.—The observations of this naturalist on the periodical variations of the temperature of the Arve are very curious, but the recital of these also we must omit.

The first volume of the *Travels among the Alps* appeared in 1779, the second in 1786, and after a lapse of some years, the two remaining volumes were published in (1796)*. A great portion of his life was spent in procuring and digesting the materials of that elaborate work; and the patience and fortitude, which he displayed in the prosecution of the plan, were truly wonderful. Leaving his plentiful home and the sweets of domestic society, he submitted to forego every comfort and accommodation; encountered danger and fatigue in a variety of shapes; and clambered or even sojourned among savage heights, exposed to the piercing influence of a cold and often tempestuous atmosphere. He marked the contours of the Alpine chains, and examined the nature and arrangement of their mineral strata. With nice discrimination, he detected those transitions which are so important in geology. Tracing the changes and decompositions of the mineral bodies, he sought by degrees to remount to their origin. His observations were likewise extended to meteorology and general physics; and with the view of executing a number of interesting experiments in these elevated regions, he had the resolution to encamp seventeen days amid the snow on the *Col du Géant*, at the vast height of 11,300 feet (above 2 miles). The celebrated journey to the summit of Mont Blanc †, which may be compared to the expedition of Columbus or that of Vasco de Gama, displayed the courage, the intrepidity, and the perseverance, which are inspired by the enthusiasm of science.

M. *de Saussure*'s great work is composed of a multitude of detached remarks and dissertations, of which it would not be easy in a few words to give any distinct idea. His lithological details are often agreeably interrupted by lively pictures of the varied and magnificent prospects of the Alpine regions, and by moral digressions on the condition and manners of the simple inhabitants, which breathe a charming sensibility of soul. Though, however, we should allow every degree of praise to the accuracy of his observations and the fidelity of his descriptions, we are not equally disposed to admire his philosophical penetration. We would consult the *Voyages dans les Alpes* rather as a correct repository of facts, than as a model of ingenious and scientific deduction.

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* See the note in p. 451. † See M. R. vol. lxxvii. p. 532.

Besides

Besides the regular tours which this active naturalist performed among the mountains of Switzerland and Piedmont, and of Savoy, he undertook a journey to examine others of a different character; and traversing the country which extends from Basle to Limbourg, he marked the vestiges of extinct volcanoes in the Brisgaw. Diligent and cautious, however, as he was in collecting geological facts, he could not always resist the temptation of attempting to connect them by some hypothesis. M. SENEBIER mentions having seen two of his projects for a theory of the earth, the one written in 1784 and the other in 1796. Nevertheless, he was too prudent, and too mistrustful of their solidity, to give them to the public; and he possessed that rare coolness and self-denial which enabled him to relinquish them, whenever an irreducible phænomenon occurred.

Prompted by liberal and patriotic motives, he procured in 1776 the establishment of a society, the object of which was the application of the principles of philosophy to the improvement of the arts. Of that body, composed of ingenious artists and of kindred men of science, he was generally president or vice-president; and he took a very active concern in its business. In this capacity, he was much consulted respecting various schemes of public utility. It having been found impracticable to erect wind-mills in the neighbourhood of Geneva, on account of the sudden squalls which arise from its peculiarly confined situation in the gap of an immense amphitheatre of mountains, he sought to obviate these destructive effects; and presented to the society the plan of a sort of horizontal wind-mill, with vanes to open and shut as it revolved.

Saussure possessed a handsome fortune, and lived in a style of affluence. He had formed a very choice cabinet, and an extensive library, particularly rich in books of botany and natural history. Generally beloved and esteemed at home, his spreading reputation procured him increasing respect abroad; and he was adopted by most of the foreign Academies and learned societies. Strangers who resorted to Geneva were proud of his acquaintance; and in 1778 he received a visit from the Emperor Joseph, who was then on his tour. He continued to give lectures until 1786, when he resigned that charge to his disciple, the ingenious *Pictet*: but the period of calm enjoyment, which resulted from his retirement, was of short duration. The political storm, which had been gathering for years, at last burst with tremendous fury; and, from its vicinity to France, the little state of Geneva felt, with peculiar aggravation, the direful effects of the Revolution. The opulent families, having for the most part vested their property in the French funds, were plunged in ruin; and the lower classes became

triumphant

triumphant, and abused their newly-acquired authority. M. SENEBIER is silent on this head, but *Saussure* was perhaps obnoxious on account of his known political attachments. Under the influence of his relation *Bonnet*, he began life by espousing the popular side, which is so powerfully attractive to the ardour and generosity of youth: but his taste and habits soon inclined him to join the party of the aristocracy, to which he afterward adhered. He appears, however, to have acted with moderation in the frequent convulsions which had agitated Geneva, and had occasioned the expulsion of so many valuable citizens. The distressful state both of private and public affairs now preyed on his spirits, and his health declined every day. He tried the waters of Aix, of Bourbon, L'Archambault, and of Plombières, but without deriving any sensible benefit. In the year 1794, he had a slight attack of the palsy, from which he recovered: but this was only the prelude to a tedious and fatal distemper, which brought him to his last moments on the 3d of Pluviose, VIIth year (21st Feb. 1799.) All Geneva testified its sorrow for this event by a public mourning; and the society, of which he was the founder, directed that his picture, painted by a very eminent artist, should be hung up in the hall of their meetings.

In his person, M. *de Saussure* was tall, and well proportioned; his countenance was agreeable; his eyes were sparkling and expressive; and he had often that air of careless ease which gains our confidence. His conversation was animated, eloquent, and attractive.

Sensible of this philosopher's misfortunes, and of his high deserts, the Directory of the French Republic had conferred a pension on him, on the publication of the last two volumes of his great work. Not many weeks after his death, also, *Bonaparte*, in the famous march across the Alps for the re-conquest of Italy, halted some days at Geneva, and, with the General officers, paid the most respectful attention to his widow; endeavouring, by every solacement, to assuage the bitterness of her grief.

Les.

ART. II. *Histoire Critique de l'Etablissement des François dans les Gaules*, &c.; *i. e.* A Critical History of the Establishment of the French in Gaul; an inedited Work of the late President HENAULT, of the French Academy, and of that of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1800. Imported by De Boffe, London, Price 10s. sewed.

ON reading this title-page, which asserts that the work was the performance of a very celebrated writer, without producing any voucher for the declaration, it is natural to ask several

veral questions. Did these volumes really come from the pen of him whose name they bear? If they did, why have they been so long withholden from the public eye? What determined their appearance at the present moment? In whose hands was the precious deposit intrusted; and under whose inspection is it now ushered into light? These inquiries, it must have been expected, would arise from the circumstances of the case; and it is reasonable that they should be resolved: but such an expectation has been wholly disregarded by the editors; who have not affixed a single sentence to satisfy the doubts, or remove the suspicions, which the reader may entertain concerning the authenticity of these pages. They are left, therefore, to establish their claim by internal evidence; and by this testimony, in our opinion, they may safely abide, since they appear to us to bear every mark of this sort, which the most scrupulous reader would require. Though we were surprised at the omissions which we have noticed, and were indeed rendered sceptical by such acircumstance, yet, having perused the volumes, we have no doubt of the truth with which they are ascribed to the late President HENAULT. That full possession of the subject, that sound judgment, that nice accuracy and rich conciseness, and those peculiarities of style and sentiment, which mark the other labours of that excellent man, are here equally conspicuous.

The foundations of the early history of France are more clearly exposed to our view than those of any other of the modern kingdoms of Europe. The barbarians, under whose yoke that country fell, first obtained a footing in it as the subjects, and then as the allies of the empire. During this connection, they made considerable advances towards civilization, and became Christians. Several of the provinces, which had retained their dependance on Rome till its fall, did not submit till this change had been wrought; and, in some instances, their subjection was less brought about by force of arms than by treaties, which left them in possession of most of their rights and privileges. The conquerors adopted their religion, permitted them to be governed by their own laws, recognized the distinctions of rank which prevailed among them, and did no violence to their usages and manners. Hence those confusions did not happen which history is unable to unravel, and which render the intervals between one period and another a barren waste; and this is the reason why France is richer than most states, in materials for illustrating its origin. Its pre-eminence in this respect, however, has not been confined solely to this circumstance; since its materials have been more nicely examined, more attentively sorted, and more judiciously arranged, than

than those of any other country. If no rival states can boast a Christian historian so ample and useful as *Gregory* of *Tours*, (with all his weaknesses,) nor so great a store of codes and capitularies, less can they lay claim to inspectors of them so judicious and able as *De Valois*, *Boulainvilliers*, *Dubos*, *Montesquieu*, *Mably*, and HENAULT. The clear point of view, in which every part of early French history has been placed, is not owing solely to the industry which distinguished these eminent individuals, but to exertions which the zeal of controversy called forth; and by which every corner of French antiquity has been ransacked, every object minutely surveyed, and every inference drawn and reflection made, which can add to the light thrown on those remote times.

In these particulars, our own country has been less fortunate than its neighbour. The interval between the expulsion (or rather the extirpation) of the antient inhabitants, and the prevalence of civilized institutions among the conquerors, is all chaos; and the materials, which have reached us, have not passed the ordeal of the best criticism, nor been thrown into proper method. Attempts of this kind, indeed, have been made, which call for our gratitude; and which would render comparatively easy the labours of a profound lawyer, who united to professional knowledge a due portion of literature, and a spirit of critical research.

Those of our readers, who are deeply conversant in modern history, are aware that the controversies, to which we have above alluded, turn on the points of the first establishment of the Franks in Gaul; the manner in which their king Clovis acquired the possession of several of the provinces at that time in obedience; (that is, which remained in subjection to the empire;) whether the Franks were taxed as the Gauls were; what the authority was with which their first kings were invested; and whether there was more than one order among them, i. e. whether there was any distinction of ranks among the freemen of this tribe.

The President HENAULT agrees with the Abbé *Dubos*, and the other antiquaries and historians who regard the Franks as the same people with the antient Sciambic, and the more modern Salians; who date their establishment in Gaul from the reign of the Emperor Constance, as early as the year 351; and who have assigned to them, as the place of their habitation, the country then called the Isle of the Batavians, (a part of modern Holland): where they resided first as subsidiaries of the empire, next as allies more or less independent, and at length completely emancipated themselves, reducing to subjection the provinces which adjoined them, and finally overrunning the whole of Gaul.

On

On the question, Whether it was by arms or by treaty that Clovis made himself master of the Roman provinces? (i.e. those which were subject to Rome,) the present author steers a middle course, and seems to have truth on his side. He agrees with the very learned and ingenious Abbé, that Clovis did not become master of Gaul by conquests similar to those of Alexander and Gengis; and he highly extols the manner in which the Abbé has set forth the assistance rendered to Clovis by the Catholic Bishops: but he dissents from him, when, allowing nothing to the dread of the conqueror's arms, he ascribes all to negociation and address. The learned Abbé maintained that the Franks of the Provinces in obedience were in no way favoured above the Gauls, but that the former paid all the taxes to which the latter submitted; and here also the President decidedly differs from, and (as we think) completely refutes him.

On the debate whether the Franks recognized a class of nobles, without at all discussing it, the author seems, in opposition to *Montesquieu*, and all the more antient writers, as well as to what he has advanced himself in his excellent *Abridgment*, to coincide with the opinions of *Dubos*, *Boulainvilliers*, and *Mably*. He treats, as most others have done, the paradoxes of the able and spirited *Boulainvilliers*; who, it is well known, wrote his work to shew that Gaul belonged to the Franks by right of conquest; that the inhabitants became the slaves—the absolute property—of the invaders; that the leaders of the same invaders were rather chiefs than kings; that the conquests belonged to the nation, and not to its chiefs, (who came in like the rest only for their share); and that France was in its original constitution an aristocratic republic. The President, in this work, as in his *Abridgment*, shews himself a good French subject, as well as a good Catholic; contending, every where, that the right of making laws was an antient inherent prerogative of the French crown; and treating as heretics all those, without distinction, who withdrew from the pale of the Roman church.

We shall now select a few miscellaneous articles from these interesting volumes.

The Breviary of the empire, i. e. the state of it, drawn up by the orders of Augustus; which set forth all its sources and its means, the citizens and allies which it had under arms and which it could arm in addition, its fleets, its kingdoms, its provinces, its revenues, and its expences; and which taught the Gauls that their liberty was at an end, that their persons, their families, and their fortunes were at the absolute disposal of a foreign master; informs us that over the whole of Gaul there was a Governor-General, who was also Commander in

Chief. The provinces were subdivided, and the lowest dependency had relations which connected it with the supreme authority. The smaller towns might have recourse to the city, the city to the metropolis, and the metropolis to the first of the order, the residence of the Prefect, who communicated immediately with the Emperor.

After the barbarian conquests, the rank of the Gallo Roman senators was preserved to them; and the clergy were all taken from among the conquered people. These two circumstances must have greatly ameliorated their condition.

The people of Brittany, as the Western empire was about to sink, deriving no protection from it, formed themselves into an independent state; which remained to the days of Clovis, who gained part of its territory by conquest; and who left the remainder to the antient inhabitants, on the condition of their becoming his subjects. On the expulsion of the Roman magistrates, their bishops are said to have exercised the leading civil functions in the government. This account shews that in this district the curious are to look for the most pure remains of the antient Celts; and the resemblance between their national character, as described by a late writer, and that of the antient Britons in our island, farther confirms such an idea.

The discovery of the tomb of Childeric at Tournay, in the year 1663, brought to light a fact which has been much discussed in the controversy relating to the first establishment of the Franks in Gaul. We here insert the following observations made on it by the Abbé *Dubos*:

"The circumstance of the tomb being on the great road does not prove that the city did not belong to Childeric. The Franks buried him without the walls of Tournay, conformably to the usage of the Romans, who never interred the dead within the precincts of their cities. The edict of Theodoric king of the Ostrogoths, prohibiting, under severe penalties, the interment of the dead within cities, proves that the Romans of the sixth century were as averse as their ancestors from this practice. Even the earlier bishops of Tours, of Paris, and of other dioceses of Gaul, were not interred in their cathedrals, which lay within the cities, but in places without the walls; where, indeed, churches were afterward erected."

How much would the healthiness and comfort of cities and towns be consulted, if we could be contented with being as little superstitious, in this respect, as the Christians of the sixth century!

When proceeding to state summarily the coincidences and differences between his notions and those of the Abbé *Dubos*, the President says:

'This

'This author, after having maturely reflected on the new ideas which he had formed concerning the enterprize of the founder of our monarchy, has admirably employed all the authorities which he collected for the support of his system. The collection of *Duchesne* was the mine from which he obtained his treasures: but it was reserved for him thence to draw truths which had escaped the eyes of all his predecessors. His own immense reading had prepared him for these grand discoveries. We have only to regret that so great a work should be left imperfect. What light would he not have thrown on all that belongs to our public law!

'We have more than once observed that, new as is the system of the Abbé *Dubos*, other authors had before taken parts of it. But it is not sufficient to perceive the truth; it must be seized, recognized, fixed, rendered our own; we must, as it were, declare its existence, and have the courage not to abandon it when once we are certain that we have discovered it. In order to this, the ideas must be precise; we must not suffer ourselves to be carried away by a torrent of authorities; nor lose sight of our object till we have brought others to discern it. Thus has the learned Abbé acted: if his views may be called in question, at least it cannot be denied that he reasoned consequentially; and that he has given information to those who do not submit to his conclusions.

'One of the circumstances which has most struck me, in his work, has been the utility of which the Bishops proved to Clovis; and the advantage which he made of the need in which they stood of him, in order to serve the purposes of religion. This brings to my remembrance a reflection which I have often made respecting Luther and Calvin, and which applies in part to the present subject.

'I have thought that Calvin saved the Catholic religion at the time of the Reformation: this looks like paradox, but it is nevertheless true. Assuredly, such was not the intention of this new sectary: but, in wishing to add to the reform of Luther, he made it appear how far persons might be carried, when once they suffered themselves to be guided by their own proper light; and thus, without intending it, he undeceived persons who had been overwhelmed by the appearance of reasonableness, which the doctrine of Luther at this time assumed.'

This topic, often discussed by Catholic writers, has never been so ably treated as by the incomparably eloquent pen of the Bishop of Méaux, in his *Histoire des Variations des Eglises reformées*.

The President then goes on to shew that the success of Clovis was owing to the Arianism of the Ostrogoth, Visigoth, and Burgundian kings.—Clovis, it is true, was at this time a Pagan, but he always shewed great deference to the Catholic Bishops. The holy Prelates, we are told, were of opinion that a Pagan was more reclaimable than a Heretic; and the presumption of these august persons, we believe, was founded in experience, and was completely justified by the event. At the period of the baptism of Clovis, we are informed that he was

the only orthodox Prince in Christendom; great doubts being entertained respecting the orthodoxy of the Greek Emperor;—and hence the right of the kings of France to the title of *eldest sons of the Church.* This and another circumstance, namely, the formal surrender of the Imperial claims on Gaul, made by Justinian to the sons of Clovis, with the ratification of its independence by the same Prince, (by which the French monarchy derives its rights from the Roman Empire), are related at length, and with particular satisfaction, by this catholic and legal historian.—Those who are fond of discovering Parallellisms in history will trace many points of resemblance between the conversion of Clovis and that of Constantine.

In conclusion, we may repeat our opinion that this publication will not lessen the fame of the highly eminent author to whom it is attributed. It should therefore be received with gratitude; and it will form a very proper introduction to the *Abrégé Chronologique.* The reader will here find, collected together within a narrow compass, the substance of those very curious and interesting controversies which, in the last ages, excited so much attention among our neighbours; and which reflected so much credit on the literature, and the spirit of criticism, which at that time prevailed in the kingdom of France.

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ART. III. *Aperçu Statistique des Etats de l'Allemagne,* &c. *i. e.* A Statistical View of the States of Germany, with respect to their Extent, Population, Productions, Industry, Commerce, and Finances. By JOHN DANIEL ALBERT HOECK, Counsellor of Justice to the King of Prussia, &c. Published in French by *Ad. Duquesnoy.* Folio. sewed. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe. London. Price 1l. 5s.

IF the potentates of Europe do not sedulously cherish that love of peace which the gospel inculcates, they cannot be accused, while meditating war, of neglecting the wise policy of *counting* their respective strength and resources. Political arithmetic, indeed, is become a prevalent object of attention:—in most countries, the people are numbered;—and their property, together with the value of their talents and industry, is nicely calculated. It is not surprizing that statesmen should be solicitous of obtaining these estimates, for they include important knowlege: but, while it is obvious that wise and benevolent rulers will make good use of such information, it is to be lamented that this is a species of knowlege which has a tendency to inspire the directors of powerful empires with a pride and an ambition, which may be fatal to the tranquillity

if

if not to the very existence of the smaller states. The philosopher derives satisfaction from contemplating such statistical views as the Tables now before us present, because they are calculated to excite the powers of his fellow-creatures in their respective districts, and to convince them of the mutual advantages which countries may derive from an exchange of their productions. He may also flatter himself with the hope that the time will come, when men will everywhere be convinced of the policy of peace; and instead of waiting for an opportunity of "letting slip the dogs of war" on each other, will combine their efforts to promote a general diffusion of the blessings which Providence has poured on separate districts of the globe. Without encouraging romantic expectations, we may be permitted to wish that statesmen would contemplate the extent, population, and productions of countries, as immense powers of doing good; and that human beings might be numbered and valued only for laudable purposes.

It may be suspected that the French have some selfish motive in ascertaining the political strength and resources of the German States; though the editor of these Tables pretends to offer them to his countrymen only as a stimulus, and a model, to those who are employed in taking statistical views of France. He speaks of this investigation as the most useful in which a citizen can be employed; and he observes that, as the Germans and the English have given such exact and detailed accounts of their empires, his countrymen should be incited to the same study: particularly as France possesses riches of every kind in such abundance, that the knowlege of them must augment at once their happiness and their patriotism.

These Tables contain statistical views, I. Of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria, on three separate sheets. II. The Prussian States, on four. III. The Ecclesiastical States, on five. IV. The antient Principalities, on ten. V. The new Principalities and Counties of the Empire, on four. VI. The Imperial Cities, on five.

Beneath the title of each Table, are given the sources or authorities from which it is compiled; and the Tables themselves are so divided into distinct columns, as to present at one view the names of the countries,—their extent in square miles,—the number of cities, towns, and villages—of houses,—of each sex, as well as the total of the population,—the productions,—industry,—commerce, subdivided into exportation, importation, and balance,—and the finances, literature, and military establishment. Thus the Kingdom of Bohemia is stated to contain $962\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, 250 cities, 308 market towns, 11,455 villages, 430,000 houses, 1,340,510 men,

1,466,433 women; total of population 2,806,493. Under the head of natural productions, we find that

Bohemia had in 1787.	acres.	sq. toises.
1. Of ploughed land	3,609,360	776
2 Ponds	69,115	1,373
3 Fields	220,136	1,393
4. Meadows	798,393	1,066
5. Gardens	85,712	722
6. Marshy ground (*étangs empl. comme prairies*)	65,515	970
7. Pastures and heaths	613,131	1,209
8. Vineyards	4,482	672
9. Woods	2,319,811	557
Total	7,783,660	8,738

The examined account (*l'état contrôlé*) of the territorial produce of grain, forage, vines, woods, and rivers, amounted in 1789 to 30,057,939 florins.

Of cattle there were in 1771,—9,789 oxen, 2,338 bulls, 9,688 cows, 2,723 calves, 8,452 sheep, 16,738 hogs, 564 he-goats, 2,758 she-goats, 533 asses.

The produce of grain amounted to 2 millions of minots (a minot is equal to 3 bushels) of wheat, 10 millions of minots of grain, 4 millions of minots of barley, and 8 millions of minots of oats.

In the list of natural productions, are also to be reckoned Fruit-trees—Hops, principally in the circle of Saaz,—Flax—Tobacco—Saffron—Poultry—Bees, in 1791 there were 20,257 Hives,—Tin, principally at Schlackenwalde,—(there are 10 mines of tin in the circle of Saaz and 2 in that of Leutmeriz) —Cobalt, 10,000 quintals, in the circle of Saaz—Silver—Alum, at Commothau (in 1788) 1,539 quintals.

In the column intitled *Industry*, it is stated that Bohemia had in 1782 ninety-five manufactures, which employed 139,613 workmen. These manufactures are of linen, wool, cotton, silk, paper, glass, leather, &c. amounting in the whole to 35,645,447 florins, of which strangers take to the value of 11,840,737 florins.

The articles of *Export* are thus enumerated: Alum, Epsom-salt, Butter and Grease, Fish, Flax, Poultry, Grain, Mineral waters, Hare-Skins, Wood, Hops, Cobalt, Hides and Skins, Fruit, Horses, Pork, Brimstone, Vitriol, Game, Flax, Tin, Dimity, Articles in iron, Articles in glass, Garnets, Hats, Linens, Brass, Paper, Potash, Aqua Fortis, Lace, Cloth, Thread.

The articles of *Import* are Cotton, Lead, White Lead, Books, Iron and iron-articles, Colours, Flax, Jewellery, Spicery, Horned Cattle from Hungary, Coffee, Cotton stuffs, Galls, Merchandise

Merchandise of Lyons, Liqueurs, Silks, Hungarian cattle, to the value of 800,000 florins, and Wine to the value of 500,000 florins.

The balance of trade is said to be in favour of the country.

Under the title of *Finances, Military Establishment, and Literature,* we are informed that the revenues of the state are 15 or 16 millions: but that the expences are so high, that, out of this sum, the surplus amounts only to 636,000 florins;—that the contribution in 1789 was 3,646,017 florins, and the tax on the Jews 216,006 florins;—and that the annual revenue from the domains of the crown was, during the life of Maria-Teresa, 332,780 florins; these domains are now estimated at 177,774 acres.

The number of Soldiers to be furnished by Bohemia in time of peace is 54,964; in time of war, 76,896.

The kingdom possesses one University, 12 *gymnasia*, 2,219 German schools, 200 schools of industry, and 33 ladies' schools.

In this manner, the Statistics of Germany are delineated, and brought under the eye on a single sheet of paper; and if these Tables be executed with accuracy, they must be of singular use not only to the politician but to geographical writers,—especially to those who are employed in compiling dictionaries and gazetteers. It occurred to us, while examining this work, that it would furnish a very eligible model, on which, when our agricultural reports are completed, a statistical view of Great Britain might be formed with great conciseness and convenience of consultation. By such a method, the population of countries is easily reckoned and compared.

From the three Tables which give a view of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria, it appears that

		Persons.	
Table I.	Bohemia contains -	2,806,493	
	Moravia -	1,256,240	
	The Dutchy of Silesia	250,000	
			—4,312,733
Table II.	Lower Austria -	1,820,000 *	
	Interior Austria	1,645,000	
	Superior Austria, or the Tirol	610,000	
	Anterior Austria	293,433	
	Rovereit and the Vorarlberg	77,971	
			—4,446,404

* Vienna, the capital of the Austrian dominions, and which is situated in lower Austria, is said in 1794 to have contained 221,775 inhabitants.

Table III.	Hungary and Illyria	7,350,000	
	Transylvania	1,443,364	
	Bukowine	130,000	
	Eastern Gallicia	2,797,119	
	Western Gallicia	1,106,178	
			—12,826,661
Total Population of the Hereditary States			21,585,798.

It would occupy more space than we can conveniently spare, to detail the interesting contents of the remaining Tables: but the specimens, which we have given, are sufficient to prove their value, and to recommend them to all those who are curious in statistics.

At the end of the sheets containing the particulars of the ecclesiastical states, we have a list of the Imperial Abbeys, with their extent in square-miles, their population, and their revenues in florins.

These Tables are far from perfect; many blanks occurring in the columns; and perhaps fresh surveys are necessary in most instances, in order to make the information completely satisfactory.

Moy.

ART. IV. *Elémens d'Algèbre, &c.* i. e. Elements of Algebra, for the Use of the Central Schools of the Four Nations. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1800.

M. LA CROIX, to whom we owe this publication, conforms to a prevalent custom, by ushering it in with a small preamble, proclaiming the necessity of the existence of such a book, and the utility to be derived from it. It is obvious, however, that the professions of authors are to be viewed with suspicion; and we believe that the wants of the public are supplied by the operation of causes more certain in their effects, and therefore more worthy of reliance, than the charitable civility and provident benevolence of disinterested writers.

The present work consists of two volumes, of which the second is styled *Complement* (*Supplement*) *to the Elements of Algebra*, containing the higher parts relative to the symmetrical functions of algebraic quantities, to the resolution of equations into quadratic factors, &c.—The matter of the first volume is arranged under the following heads: equations of the first degree with one unknown quantity, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, greatest common divisor, literal fractions, equations of the first degree with several unknown quantities, equations of the first degree with three or a greater number of unknown quantities, general formulæ for the resolution of equations of the first degree,

equations

equations of the second degree with one unknown quantity, extraction of the square root of literal quantities, calculus of quantities effected by the sign $\surd$, formation of the powers of * *monomial* quantities, extraction of their roots, and calculus of radicals and exponents, formation of the powers of complex quantities and extraction of their roots, extraction of the roots of complex quantities, equations of two terms, general theory of equations, transformations of equations, elimination, numerical resolution of equations with one unknown quantity, theory of exponential quantities and of logarithms, interest of money.

M. La Croix has extracted, from the works of *Bezout*, *Euler*, and *La Grange*, a great variety of valuable methods; and the excellence of the selection forms, in our opinion, the chief merit of the first volume: since, in examining the difficult points which occur in the Elements, we do not find them treated either with great logical precision, or with peculiar happiness of illustration. The reflections on positive and negative quantities are not very satisfactory; and the demonstrations concerning the sign, with which the product of negative and positive quantities ought to be affected, are erroneous. It can never be proved, independently of all previous assumption, that b multiplied by $(a-a)$ is $(ab-ab)$: it can indeed be proved that $(a'-a) \times b$ is $(a'b-ab)$ if a' be greater than a: but the proof essentially depends on this very circumstance that a' is greater than a, and must fail if $a' = a$. What is said concerning the origin and use of impossible quantities will not satisfy the scrupulous and inquisitive mathematician; who deems the evidence of principles, and the justness of inference, objects of as great importance as compendiousness of method and facility of computation.

The second volume, *Complement of the Elements of Algebra*, begins with *Symmetrical Functions of the Roots of Equations.* These, it is known, are parcels of expressions formed by combining all the roots of an equation either with one another or with given quantities, exactly in the same manner. Newton, who gave formulæ for the sum of the roots, and of the squares, of the cubes, &c. &c. of the roots of an equation, was the first inventor of the calculus of symmetrical functions; and after him this branch was cultivated by Waring, by *Vandermonde* †, by *Euler*,

* We believe that there is no authority for *monomial*, (monome): but, as thus translated, it is an analogous expression with binomial, trinomial, &c.

† M. *Vandermonde*, in a note to his memoir (Academy of Sciences, Ann. 1771, page 365.) acknowleges that Waring found out theo-

Euler *, and by *La Grange*†. M. La Croix, after having demonstrated Newton's rule for the sum of the powers of the roots of an equation, shews how to deduce the value of $\alpha^n \beta^p \gamma^q$, &c. $+\beta^n \alpha^p \gamma^q$, &c. +, and applies the formulæ of symmetrical functions to transform equations into new equations, of which the roots are the squares of the differences of the roots of the original equation.

The next subject treated in this volume is *The General Resolution of Equations.* This difficult point is not very fully discussed: but the principle of solution is very perspicuously explained, and illustrated by an application to quadratic, cubic, and biquadratic equations. The principle of the solution consists in finding functions proper for the expression of the roots of a proposed equation, and the determination of which functions depends on an equation of an inferior degree.

We are then presented with *Observations on the Expressions of Roots of Equations of the Third and Fourth Degree.* In the irreducible case, the root in fact appears under an imaginary form. *Bombelli*, by taking the quantities comprized under the cubic radicals as perfect cubes, was convinced of the reality of the imaginary formula: but he was unable to establish a general proof of the reality; which was first given by *M. Nicole* in the Memoirs of the Academy of Paris, who expanded $\sqrt[3]{a+b\sqrt{-1}}$, $\sqrt[3]{a-b\sqrt{-1}}$ into two series, and shewed that the impossible parts mutually destroyed each other. M. La Croix has made a valuable extract from the *Séances des Ecoles Normales*, in which M. *La Grange* shews that the value of x in the irreducible case must always be real: "But how," says this great mathematician, "can we assign its value? It does not appear possible to represent it otherwise than by its imaginary expression, or by an expression in the form of a series, which is the developement of it. We must therefore regard these sorts of imaginary expressions, which correspond to real quantities, as forming a new class of algebraic expressions; which, although they have not, as other expressions have, the advantage of being numerically computed in the state in which they are, have nevertheless what is alone necessary in algebraical operations, that of being employed in these operations as if they did not contain imaginary quantities."

On the Extraction of the Roots of Quantities partly commensurable, partly incommensurable. On the Reduction of Equations. The

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rems analogous to his own. M.V. received the *Meditationes Algebraicæ* in the interval between the reading and the printing of his memoir.

* Introd. in Annalysin. Infm. † Berlin Memoirs.

author

author here shews how to reduce equations when there is a given relation between the roots; for instance, if the roots are known to be of the form a, $-a$, or, a, $\frac{1}{a}$. He then shews that, towards the resolution of equations of the third degree, nothing is gained by resolving them into two factors, as $(x^2 + a^1 x + b^2$, $x + a^{11})$, since the determination of any one of the co-efficients (a^1, b, a^{11}) depends on an equation of as high a degree as the original equation. If equations of the fourth degree be resolved into two quadratic factors, then the determination of their coefficients depends on an equation of the sixth degree: but, if the coefficient of the second term of the original equation $= o$, then the determination of one of the unknown coefficients may be obtained by the resolution of a cubic; since the equation of the sixth degree then assumes the form, $x^6 + px^4 + qx^2 + s$. Since the last term of the equation of the sixth degree is negative, the equation must have two real roots; and consequently the coefficients of the terms of the quadratic factors may be proved to be real. There is, however, a particular case * in which they cannot be so proved, and this M. La Croix notices. It was first remarked by M. *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs; and this mathematician made use of it to shew the insufficiency of *Euler*'s demonstration, viz. that every equation of an even degree may be resolved into real factors of the second degree. The demonstration of this latter proposition is given by M. La Croix, after *La Place*; and the same demonstration is also inserted in M. La Croix's Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. See M. R. *N. S.* vol. xxxi. p. 493. and vol. xxxii. p. 485.

On the Disappearance of Radicals by which o *means that an Equation may be formed when the Expression of its Root is known.* Suppose $x = \sqrt[3]{A}$. Let α, β, γ, be the three roots of 1; then $x = \alpha \sqrt[3]{A}$, $\beta \sqrt[3]{A}$, $\gamma \sqrt[3]{A}$; then, if the three factors $(x - \alpha \sqrt[3]{A}$, &c. be multiplied together, the result is $x^3 - A$, since it is plain that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = o$, $\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma = o$, and $\alpha\beta\gamma = 1$.

Euler, remarking the form which the roots of equations of the second and third degree wanting the second term assumed, conjectured that in general the root of an equation of the nth degree would be of this form:

$$x = \sqrt[n]{A} + \sqrt[n]{B} + \sqrt[n]{C}, \text{ \&c. } (n-1)$$

* This case is when the last term of the resolving equation is o: for then the value of one of the coefficients appears under the indeterminate form $\frac{o}{o}$.

but

but he afterward modified it into

$$x = A\sqrt[n]{u} + B\sqrt[n]{u^2} + C\sqrt[n]{u^3}, \text{ \&c.}$$

The latter form was given by Waring in the first edition of his *Meditationes*, 1763; and he asserts that *Euler*'s and *Bezout*'s methods appeared after the publication of his work. This fact is certain: but it is not clear that *Euler* did not discover the method *pro suâ parte.*

M. La Croix applies *Euler*'s method to equations of the fourth and fifth degree; shews what are the equations which have roots of the form $\sqrt[n]{A} + \sqrt[n]{B}$; and then says:

'The preceding reflections are sufficient to manifest the nature of the difficulties which the problem of the algebraical resolution of equations presents; and, on resuming them, it is easy to conclude that it is yet doubtful whether it is possible to express, by a limited number of algebraical operations, (that is to say, of additions, subtractions, multiplications, and extractions of roots generally indicated,) the roots of any equation whatever, by means of its coefficients. Even in the third degree, for which general formulæ have been found, these formulæ become illusory in the irreducible case; and the same circumstance, which *à fortiori* ought to take place in higher degrees, would suffice to render useless the formulæ belonging to equations of those degrees, when such formulæ should be known. "We may then, (says *La Grange*) be previously assured that, if we were to arrive at the general solution of equations of the fifth and of higher degrees, we should thus gain only algebraic formulæ, which would indeed be precious in themselves, but would be very little useful in the effectual and numerical solution of equations of the same degrees; and which consequently would not supersede the use of arithmetical methods."—'

The most important question in algebra is not concerning the numerical resolution of equations, but respecting the possibility of making the investigation of the root of any equation depend on a limited number of algebraic operations. Can the root of an equation be exhibited by a formula; which is a tablet representing, by algebraic characters, the operations that are to be made on the given quantities, to deduce thence the values of the quantities required? Or are there quantities of which it is impossible to develope the relation, except by approximation and individually? On these questions, M. La Croix makes several remarks; and, in offering *probable* reasons why any equation of an even number of dimensions should have a root, he says:

'The formula $x = -\frac{1}{2}p \pm \sqrt{\frac{p^2}{4} - q}$, which represents the roots of the equation $x^2 + px + q = o$, does not cease to do so, although this equation becomes absurd; it is only reduced to a purely algebraic symbol, which no longer corresponds to any existing quan-

tity, but which, being submitted to the operations indicated in the equation, nevertheless renders the sum of all the terms equal to zero. By this example, we may understand that, if there exists for a single case an expression of the root of an equation of an even degree, this expression ought still to subsist for every other case. It has appeared, however, that every equation of an even degree has at least two real roots when its last term is negative; yet the value of these roots, depending on that of the coefficients of the proposed equation, must necessarily be compounded of its coefficients, combined in a certain manner; or must be a function of the coefficients. Although we cannot assign the form of this function, its existence is not the less evident: the method of series and the differential calculus furnish the means of obtaining its developement. This being established, it is plain that it ought to subsist when the sign of the last term of the proposed equation is changed; and then it becomes the root of an equation of which the last term is positive. It may, by this change, cease to be real, but it will retain its existence as an analytical expression; it will always, then, be lawful to represent it by a symbol which shall partake of properties common to all roots of equations.'

The article which next occurs relates to *Certain Transformations which lead to the Resolutiou of Equations of the first Four Degrees.* Of these transformations, the first is that of *Tschirnaus*, by which he reduced equations of the second, third, and fourth degrees, to two terms; the second is that of *Cardan*, by which he solved cubics; and the third is that of *La Grange* *, by which he solved biquadratics.

On the Developement of Fractional and Negative Powers.—In this article, the writer demonstrates the binomial theorem by two different methods. The first is taken from *Euler:* but, as it rests (to use the author's phrase) 'on a consideration too fine to be apprehended by young students,' a second is added from the Philosophical Transactions (year 1796). If M. La Croix had referred to Landen's Residual Analysis, he would there have found the same demonstration; and if he had consulted his discernment, and had taken a nearer view of the principle of the demonstration, he might have perceived that it is not founded on the simple operations of calculation.—We do not concur in the commendation given to *Euler*'s proof.

On the Summation of Series of which the general Term is a rational Function of a certain Number of Terms.—On recurring Series.—On the Developement of Exponentials and Logarithms into Series.—The developement of a^x is effected on the same principle as the one employed to demonstrate the binomial theorem. In our opinion, this principle involves a sophism.

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* This method is only an extension of that of *Cardan:* it consists in assuming $x = u + u' + u''$, u, u', u'' being three indeterminate quantities.

M. La

M. La Croix gives some formulæ invented by *Borda* and *Haros*, which express, by means of very converging series, the relations between the several logarithms of successive numbers. The formula of *Borda* is thus deduced:

In the series for the log. $\frac{1+u}{1-u}$

make $1+u = (p-1)\,(p-1)\,(p+2) = p^3-3p+2$

$1-u = (p+1)\,(p+1)\,(p-2) = p^3-3p-2$;

thence may be deduced

$$l.\,(p+2) + 2\,l.\,(p-1) - l.\,(p-2) - 2\,l.\,(p+1)$$

$$= 2le\left\{\frac{2}{p^3-3p} + \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{2}{p^3-3p}\right)^3 +, \text{ \&c.}\right.$$

If p be taken successively 5, 6, 7, 8, there result four equations, which contain only the logarithms of 2, 3, 5, 7, which may consequently be determined by a simple elimination.—The formula of *Haros* is obtained in a manner somewhat similar.

The concluding articles in the volume are *Reversion of Series*;—*Continued Fractions*;—which, with some slight alterations, form the first paragraph of the additions made by *La Grange* to *Euler*'s Algebra, (see vol. ii. p. 379);—and *On the Indeterminate Analysis.*

Such are the contents of this work; in which the writer appears to possess greater learning than discernment, and to be more attentive to dexterity of method than to nicety and exactness of principle. He has great merit in having understood, arranged, and reduced to system the labours of other mathematicians:—but it is a thankless office to distribute the mediocrities of commendation; and an author, who is fully conscious that his production possesses only limited excellence. is impatient and vexed at having such circumscribed praise assigned to it.

R. Wood.

Art. V. *Histoire du Directoire Exécutif de la République Française*, &c. *i. e.* The History of the Executive Directory of the French Republic, from its foundation to the 18th Brumaire (8 Nov. 1799.) inclusive: accompanied by justificatory Papers. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. London: imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

Many sages and politicians have fondly extolled and strenuously recommended representative governments. Under these forms, it has been said, the governors sought only the good of the governed; while the latter, in exchange for subjection, shared in every comfort and in every blessing which endear

endear and give value to existence. Recent experience, however,—that which the directorial rule in a neighbouring country furnishes,—has not only ill corresponded with but has completely contradicted this theory. While that political regimen prevailed, all authority was derived from suffrage; and surely never was power intrusted to more unworthy or more incompetent hands. Had minions and mistresses appointed the occupiers of places of trust and influence, could they have been worse filled? In what age, or in what country, have rulers shewn more want of dignity, greater propensity to abuse power, and more aptitude to betray their trusts, than were exhibited by these persons; whose misconduct has occasioned the French people to embrace usurpation and military tyranny as boons, to receive their yoke with pleasure, and to bless those who imposed it on them? The traits of the directorial government are, alas! too well known to Europe: but the circumstances, which shew that its origin did not ill comport with its future destinies, are probably less notorious. A few of these we shall copy from the author of the work now before us, and submit to our readers.

While the Councils were taking measures for the nomination of the members of the supreme magistracy, those members, who had been of the Convention, considered it as of the utmost importance that the choice should fall on persons of like principles with themselves. In order to carry their point, this faction had recourse to the most gross and indecent artifice that ever was adopted. The Council of Five Hundred presented to that of the Antients, a list of fifty candidates, out of which it was to chuse five, who were to constitute the Executive Directory. The list contained only six names of any note. This proceeding called forth loud but ineffectual remonstrances; the election proceeded; and it was conducted agreeably to the expectations of those who had practised this clumsy fraud. When *Sieyes* declined a directorial seat, the same disgraceful stratagem was again succesfully played off. It unfortunately thus happened, that too many of the views and maxims of the deceased Convention were infused into the new government;—views and maxims which led it to adopt measures ruinous in the highest degree to France, and not less calamitous to the rest of Europe.

Those who are curious in observing the caprices of the human mind, and desirous of drawing practical inferences from such observations, will not slightly pass over the account given in these volumes, of the conspiracy of *Baboeuf*; who, together with his followers, worshipped the memory of the bloody *Robespierre*, regarding him as a *martyr in the cause of mankind!*

We are glad to perceive that a Frenchman, and in appearance a revolutionary partisan, is disposed, and dares, to sympathize with fallen greatness; to commiserate and to bear honourable testimony to expatriated royalty. The public are in possession, through the channels of the newspapers, of the notice sent to Louis the XVIIIth, by the Rulers of Venice, to quit their territories, and of his spirited answer. We are here told that, while at Verona, this Prince led a most regular life; that his dress and decorations were arranged every morning by eight o'clock; that the greatest part of the forenoon was employed in writing, and that he was visible only to his chancellor; that his table was frugal; that after dinner he gave audience to a few persons, and then shut himself up, and was heard walking about with great agitation; that towards night his spirits grew more calm, when he joined his courtiers, in order to hear some reading; that he never went out, never visited Verona, nor its vicinity; that he regularly read the *Moniteur*, and the principal French papers; that he always bore the name of Count *de Zelle*; and that once, on an emigrant being presented who styled him *his Majesty*, profound sighs escaped him.

The Directory, it is well known, accused *Pichegru* of having intrigued with the Prince of *Condé* in favour of the restoration of royalty. Of all the charges exhibited on the fatal 18th of Fructidor, (4th Sept.) this against the republican General was, we recollect, considered as the best supported. A digested plan for the invasion of France, in which *Pichegru* was to be prime agent, was found at Venice by General *Berthier* among the papers of M. *D'Antraigues*, in the hand writing of that gentleman; and this paper was forwarded to the Directory. Why was not the General accused on its being received? Why did they not state the proofs that he was privy to the plan? In this paper, *Pichegru*'s head quarters are fixed at Altkirk, a place which he never visited; and pensions are stipulated for his wife and children, though the poor General never was married. The fact turns out to be that *D'Antraigues* was a man who amused himself with drawing up imaginary plans, and making living characters actors in them without ever consulting those individuals. He published a dialogue, (equally imaginary with this correspondence,) purporting to having taken place between an Austrian General and a chief commissary of the French army in Bavaria.—The author of the history before us has no doubt respecting *Pichegru*'s innocence; and he very properly remarks that a great man, and a military character, who has ably served and defended his country, is always intitled to be *presumed* to be innocent. We admit the observation: but, if this

this General really be blameless, why is he still an exile from his natal soil, subsisting on the bounty of strangers, and treated by his country as a criminal and an outlaw? Why is he not recalled; why is not his rank restored to him; and why does not the republic honor itself by conferring honors on one of the ablest and most respected of its soldiers?—We should be glad to learn the reply of the consular advocates.

The complaisance shewn by *Bonaparte* towards the Mohammedan Religion is stated by the present author to have been not only allowable, but laudable, because it prevented the effusion of blood. In the proclamations which he addressed to the inhabitants of the country, and in his correspondence with the Sheriff of Mecca, the Sultan of Dac-fur, and other Mohammedans, he quoted passages from the Koran, and the profession of faith of the Mussulmans: "There is no other god than God, and Mohammed is his prophet." The fanaticism of religion, says this writer, may accuse him of apostacy; and the hardihood of irreligion may charge him with weakness: but true philosophy and wisdom will acquit him of either.—What the grounds are, however, on which philosophy and wisdom will excuse this duplicity, the author has not condescended to state.

Respecting the expedition of the French into Egypt, which apparently may now be said to have terminated so disastrously for them, we are told that the scientific men attached to the army made important discoveries, which throw light on geography, history, and physics. The tracks of the canals which rendered antient Egypt so fertile, commercial, and populous, were sought with the utmost care. Artists traversed the province of Faroum, and Upper Egypt, to take drawings of its numerous monuments. If there were obstacles to be surmounted, fatigues to be undergone, and dangers to be braved, all was rendered easier by the presence of a conquering army; and places were visited, which the jealousy of the inhabitants had shut against former travellers. - We have heard much of these promises, but we have not yet been presented with very satisfactory fulfillments of them.

From the garbled accounts of many important events which occur in these pages, it follows either that the author is an extravagant partisan, or that the press in France is under restraints equally grievous and absurd. Actions with English ships are, in particular, materially misrepresented; and the fatal issue of them on the French side is concealed or diminished as much as circumstances could possibly countenance. For instance; in relating the engagement off the N. Coast of Ireland in October 1798, between the French invading squadron under Rear Admiral Bompart, and the English squadron under Captain Sir

Sir John B. Warren, the author says that the latter consisted of *six ships of the line*, one ship *cut down*, and *two* frigates: but the fact is that there were only *three ships of the line*, and *five* frigates;—and in attempting to gloss over the almost total capture of the French squadron, he states that *L'Embuscade* blew up, that *le Hoche*, *la Bellone*, and *la Coquille* were obliged to strike, that *la Resolue* was too much damaged to take any part in the action, and that the (*other*) frigates effected their escape:—of which the truth is that *l'Embuscade* and *la Resolue* were captured as well as *le Hoche*, *la Bellone*, and *la Coquille*, and that two others, *la Loire* and *l'Immortalité*, were taken a few days afterward:—*la Romaine*, *la Semillante*, and *la Biche*, only escaping out of the whole squadron, consisting of ten vessels; one of the line, eight frigates, and a schooner.—The memorable battle of the Nile is related with more fidelity.

Jo.

ART. VI. M. DE LA HARPE'S *Lycæum, or Course of Lectures on Antient and Modern Literature.*

[*Article continued from the last Appenaix.*]

Vol. III. in two parts. ANTIENTS. Book II. *Eloquence.* Chap. IV. *Analysis of Cicero's Works on Oratory.*

Sect. I. *Of the Difference in the Style and Character of the Eloquence of Demosthenes and Cicero, and the conformity of each to the peculiar genius of the People of Athens and Rome.*

WE have been much more diffuse in our remarks, and more liberal in our extracts, in examining the first two vols. of this work, than it seems necessary for us to be in the subsequent parts of so extensive a publication. Indeed the first two volumes appear to be the most elaborate, and to contain articles more important and more generally interesting, than any of the subsequent parts which we have yet perused. Not that we perceive any deficiency in the Lecturer's labour, spirit, or ingenuity; for he keeps our attention alive, revives our acquaintance with many writers of whom we have long lost sight, and makes us wish for leisure to peruse them ourselves, *de novo*, with as much care as he seems to have done.

M. DE LA HARPE begins the IIId volume in the following manner:

'We have heard Demosthenes in two kinds of eloquence, the judicial and the deliberative; and we have seen that his logic was equally forcible, and the succession of his ideas equally rapid, in both. Cicero generally proceeds in a different manner: he prepares his hearers for what is coming; he seems to manage his powers by multiplying the means; he not only neglects nothing which can serve his cause,

cause, but nothing which can contribute to the glory of his art;—and it is doubtless on this account that *Fenelon*, whose taste was so delicate, was so partial to Demosthenes, because he came more immediately to the point. Quintilian, on the contrary, seems to have preferred Cicero; which only proves that, between two orators of such superior merit, preference is rather an affair of taste than of demonstration.—My favorite has always been Cicero, and I still rank him first as a writer: but since I have attended deliberative assemblies, I have been inclined to think that the manner of Demosthenes would be more powerful in its effects than that of Cicero.

'It must be remarked that both of these orators are, with respect to us, only writers; we *hear* them not, we *read* them; they exercise not upon us the powers of persuasion, but those of pleasing. Philip and Eschines, Antony and Catiline, have been long sentenced; we now try Cicero and Demosthenes; and in this point of view the difference is great; since the Greeks and Romans first attended to the cause, and then to the orators. Both have had the same success in exercising their empire over the minds of men: but now I plainly perceive that Cicero, who possesses every kind of wit and all sorts of style, must be more generally admired than Demosthenes, who had not that advantage. Cicero gives his reader every species of pleasure, and in perusal would be preferred: but Demosthenes, in being heard, would be irresistible in the force of his reasoning, which is certainly the most important object in the oratorical art.

'May we not also observe other motives of disparity, drawn from the different kinds of government and character among the people whom they addressed! In Athens, there was only one power, that of the people: it was an absolute democracy, such as *Rousseau* wished, exclusively, *for small states:* he believed it to be impracticable in great, and there is no example of it.

'The Athenians were fickle, averse from application, fond of repose, idolators of pleasure, confident in their powers, and vain of their former glory. They wanted to be violently agitated; and though the manner of Demosthenes was doubtless the result of natural qualities and talents, he was obliged to modify it, to a certain degree, by the knowlege which he had of his audience; and this study was too important to escape a man of his penetration and elevation of mind. He therefore principally aimed at forcibly striking this inattentive multitude; well knowing that, if he allowed them time to breathe, if he permitted them to think of the beauties of his style and diction, all was lost. The Athenians were capable of forgetting all that he had said, in order to be in raptures at his phraseology, and make a parade of their own good taste by encomiums on that of the orator. He knew it so well that, at the end of the *Philippic* which I have translated, and which gained him great applause, he cried out: "Ah! applaud not the orator, but follow his counsel; for I cannot save you by words: it is your business to save yourselves by actions."

'Accordingly, when he had roused the people, he had done every thing: they commissioned him immediately to draw up a decree in the usual form, which assigned to the orator all the honour and

all the danger; *By the advice of Demosthenes, the Athenian people order and decree,* &c. There are still numerous decrees of this kind preserved by the historians and orators of Greece.

'Such was not the practice at Rome: there, a concurrence of powers, and a complication of different interests, were to be managed. Though the sovereignty was in fact lodged in the hands of the people, without being theoretically established, as it has been among the moderns, the habitual government appertained to the senate; except on occasions in which the tribunes brought a cause before an assembly of the people, and passed a *plebiscitum;* and then even the senate was obliged to submit.—But what proves that the theory of the sovereignty of the people was not clearly known, is that all the public acts were textually acknowleged: *Senatus populusque Romanus* was inconsistent; this principle required them to say, *Populus senatusque Romanus.* But this difference between the sovereignty and the government has not been sufficiently defined, except in the writings of Locke; and from them *Rousseau* has transplanted it into his *Social Contract.*

'Affairs of state were often discussed at the same time in the senate and before the people; and the difference of the audience required a different kind of eloquence: for there were citizens so powerful, that they alone could, by their personal credit, throw a considerable weight into the scale; and the orator was obliged to attend to all these considerations.

'The Roman people were much more serious, thoughtful, considerate, and moral, than the Athenians; and it may even be said that of all the free people of antiquity, none can be compared with them.'

This parallel is pursued to a considerable length; and the different species of eloquence, which characterized the two great orators of antiquity, is clearly manifested by nice discriminations.

Sect. II. *Of Roman Orators who preceded Cicero, and of his first Attempts.*—This section, though short, gives a clear and satisfactory account of the progress of eloquence among Roman statesmen, from the time of Cato the Censor, to the days of Hortensius and Cicero.

Sect. III. *The Verrene Orations.*—Sect. IV. *The Catilinarian Orations.*—Sect. V. *On the other Harangues of Cicero.*—The account of Cicero's pleadings against Verres is here almost wholly taken from Middleton's *Life of Cicero,* without acknowlegement. Catiline's conspiracy is more clearly detailed in Middleton: but the first and fourth orations against him are well translated by the present lecturer.

The *Murena* cause brought on by Cato, as prosecutor, produced one of Cicero's most agreeable orations in defence of the accused consul: in which, to diminish the weight of Cato's character, he says: "take away from this cause the name of Cato; set aside its authority, which ought to have no weight in a legal judgment, nor any credit, but in doing good;——

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and let them attack us by facts." The lenient measures which Cicero recommends to the prosecutor, and his description of Stoicism, addressed to Cato himself in full senate, are admirable; and though this part of his speech excited laughter in all the conscript fathers, Cato, on going out, only said, half smiling and half grumbling: *Truly, we have a very facetious consul.*

M. DE LA HARPE has translated Cicero's oration in favour of the Greek poet Archias. As his client had been accused of no crime, and only sued to be reinstated in the rights of a Roman citizen, of which he had been unjustly deprived; Cicero availed himself of this opportunity of celebrating *literature*, and the cultivation of the human mind. The rhetorical style of this elegant and admirable speech is neither in his sublime nor in his simple manner, but of the temperate order; and it is given as a specimen of the grace, beauty, and interesting ornaments, with which he captivated his hearers in treating subjects of little importance.—In speaking of education, he allows that many illustrious persons, from a happy nature, have arrived at every thing that is great and glorious by their own diligence, without lessons; " nay, I will go still farther, (he adds,) and allow that nature, without instruction, has generally more power than instruction without nature:—but when we join to the gifts of nature all the assistance which instruction can afford, the result will be every thing that is beautiful, grand, and admirable, in man."

The character and works of Cicero, with the incidents in his life, have supplied M. DE LA HARPE with a chain of historical facts, and subjects of reflection, on which he seems to have dwelt with pleasure; and this article, illustrated by translations of the most agreeable and interesting orations of this great advocate and statesman, during the most busy and important period of the Roman history, will equally contribute to the amusement and the instruction of those readers who are unacquainted with the dead languages.

These sections are followed by an *Appendix*, or new reflections concerning antient eloquence; the erudition of the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries; the dialogue of Tacitus *de càusis corruptæ eloquentiæ;* Demosthenes and Cicero, &c. A part of this appendix turns on a controversy between the author and M. *Garat*, respecting the distinction between eloquence and oratory. In speaking (p. 170) of the obligations which literature owed to Dante, Petrarca, and Boccacio, the author's chronology is a little inaccurate when he says: ' They all three flourished in the 14th century, at the time of the taking of Constantinople.' The three fathers of the Italian language certainly flourished

in the 14th century; Dante died in 1321, Boccacio in 1375, and Petrarca in 1374: but Constantinople was not taken by the Turks till the middle of the 15th century, 1453: so that the three Italian bards were all dead long before that event.

The horrors of revolution, and of national atheism, are so truly described in this appendix, that the author must have incurred *deportation* at any other period of the French republic than the present;—in favour of which, this circumstance bears testimony.

Chap. V. *Of the two Plinys.*

'Roman eloquence (says the lecturer) participating in the ruin of public liberty, lost all that it had gained from this source; its dignity, its elevation, its energy, its boldness, and its importance. It could no longer direct the assemblies of the people, which had lost all their power: in the deliberations of a slavish senate, it must either be dumb, or exercise itself in adulation and meanness: the tribunals were no longer worthy of its voice, since public decisions had lost their credit and majesty, since trivial interests alone were discussed, and since every thing depended on the will of an individual. The orator triumphs when he subdues all opinions: but when all is submitted to a master, the talent of flattery alone is cultivated; for the abilities of men are always directed, more or less, to their own interest. A free state is the proper field for eloquence, in affording adversaries, combats, dangers, and triumphs.——Such was not the case at Rome even in the time of Augustus; whose reign has indeed given his name to that brilliant period of the perfection of taste, of language, and of the arts of imagination, yet saw true eloquence perish with the republic and with Cicero.'——

'Nevertheless, though eloquence and poetry had already very much degenerated, many men of merit still preserved the glory of their country in an inferior degree, and formed a kind of third age of Roman literature: in verse, Persius, Juvenal, Silius Italicus, Statius, Martial, and, above all, Lucan: in prose, Quintilian, Seneca, and the two Plinys. I speak not of Tacitus here, a man superior to all those whom I have named, who stands by himself, and who alone in this lower period was worthy of being compared with men of the most sublime genius in the age of Augustus. He will be introduced when we come to treat of *Historians*.'

The Panegyric of the younger Pliny on Trajan is the only monument of eloquence in this æra which remains, and the only object of comparison with the preceding period. Notwithstanding Pliny's excessive admiration of Cicero, and the severity with which he treated his contemporaries, he appears not to have made that great orator his model with any degree of success. 'His wit (says the lecturer) is infinite; it is scarcely possible to manifest more: but he takes too much pains to display it, and displays nothing else. He endeavours to *point* all his thoughts, to give them an epigrammatic turn; and this continual labour, this

this profusion of sallies, this monotony of wit, soon becomes tiresome. As in the case of Seneca, it is better to quote parts of him than to read him through.'—Here follows a parallel between the eloquence of Cicero and that of Pliny, very much to the disadvantage of the latter.

The author has selected and translated the most brilliant parts of Pliny's Panegyric on the Emperor; and if any thing can subdue envy, and render the commendation of others altogether palatable to ourselves, it must be the eulogy of so virtuous, humane, and faultless a prince. The praise of Pliny is strong, and would be very offensive if ill-applied or unmerited: but history has fully confirmed the indisputable title of this Emperor to all the virtues with which his encomiast has endowed him.

The letters of the younger Pliny have been rendered so familiar to unlearned readers in our country, by the elegant version of the late Mr. Melmoth, that we shall only farther observe respecting them, that M. DE LA HARPE has translated and commented on several, and has rendered them very interesting by his reflections and historical anecdotes.

Of the elder Pliny, called the *Naturalist*, (in order to distinguish him from his nephew,) it is to be remarked that, as a writer, the eloquence diffused through his work, and the imagination which animates and colours his style, intitle him to an eminent place among the authors of the last age of Roman literature. His book has been aptly styled the Encyclopedia of the Antients; and from him we are enabled to form an idea of the extent of their science. All is to be found in his work; astronomy, geometry, physiology, botany, medicine, anatomy, mineralogy, agriculture, mechanics, and the arts of luxury. The mere list of his labours and productions is terrific. M. DE LA HARPE has drawn his character with great spirit, and has translated his nephew's account of his studies.

ANTIENTS. Book III. *History, Philosophy, and Miscellaneous Literature.* Chap. I. *History.*

Sect. I. and II. *Greek and Roman Historians of the First Class.*—*Herodotus* is first characterized, as a clear, elegant, and pleasing writer: but as deficient in method, in details, and in critical examination of facts.

Thucydides is censured for defects of a very different kind from those of his predecessor: he is said to be too concise in narration, and too long in harangues. He abounds with reflections, but they are sometimes obscure; and he has a philosophical gravity in his style, which occasionally renders it dry. For these reasons, he is read with less pleasure than

Xenophon, who wrote some time after him, and who, on account of the sweetness of his style, has been surnamed the *Attic Bee*. He first published and continued the history of Thucydides, to which he added seven books. He had been a disciple of Socrates; and he had commanded the memorable retreat of the ten thousand, one of the wonders of antiquity, and of which he was worthy to write the history. Like Cæsar, he was the historian of his own exploits; like him, he joined the talent of recording them to the glory of the atchievements themselves; like him, he is intitled to perfect credence, because there were so many witnesses of the facts. In his history, he is admired as a statesman; in his *Cyropædia*, as a philosopher.

Livy and *Sallust* are compared with Herodotus and Thucydides by Quintilian; who also associates Livy with Cicero in eloquence. Sallust is accused by the lecturer of wilful omissions with respect to the services which Cicero rendered to the state:—but how could he be expected to mention as virtues Cicero's detection of Catiline, and his enmity to Clodius, both of whom were secretly abetted by Sallust's patron, Cæsar? Party spirit and candour are mortal enemies.

Tacitus's character is admirably drawn. *Quintus Curtius* is rated higher by the present author than he has usually been by others: while *Polybius* and *Dionysius Halicarnassus* are placed somewhat lower: M. DE LA HARPE regarding the first as a writer in the art of war, and the second as an antiquary, rather than classing them as elegant historians.

Diodorus Siculus, *Appian*, *Arrian*, and *Dion Cassius*, are characterized by a word. The author does not allow that they surpassed *mediocrity*.

Ammianus Marcellinus, and *Herodian*, are alone worthy of the lower empire.

Sect. III. *Historians of the Second Class.*—Here we are presented with a portrait of *Justin*, a whole length; with *Florus*, and *Paterculus*. Two fine passages in Justin are well translated: containing the characters of Alcibiades and Philip of Macedon, exquisitely drawn. *Cornelius Nepos*, and *Suetonius*, biographers.

Plutarch, an excellent whole length. Harangues translated from *Livy* (aristocratic), *Sallust* (democratic), *Tacitus*, (defence of a republican speech), and *Quintus Curtius*'s speech of a Scythian to Alexander the Great, sententious and figurative, in the Oriental and the Northern manner.

Vol. III. Part II. ANTIENTS. Book III. *History, Philosophy, and Miscellaneous Literature.* Chap. II. *Antient Philosophy.*

Nothing can more indisputably prove the secession of M. DE LA HARPE from his old friends the modern *Philosophes*, than his

his reflections on the philosophical systems of the antients. In so wide a field of disputation as that into which the innumerable sects and sages of antiquity seem to have called him, he appears to have explored chiefly the four divisions occupied by Plato, Plutarch, Cicero, and Seneca: but we cannot enable our readers to follow him in his inquiries into their principles, nor afford space for many quotations either from himself or from the writers whom he has selected. All that we can cite, from this part of the third volume, is a translation of the introduction prefixed to this chapter on the Philosophy of the Antients; which will exhibit the author's own philosophical articles of faith, and unfold the manner in which he intends to proceed in his investigations.

'*Preliminary Ideas.*'

'It must not be expected that I should analyse the philosophical system of the antients with so much minuteness as I have bestowed on the laws of poetry and eloquence, on which I endeavoured to extend my reflections in proportion to the importance of the subjects, and the interest which belongs to them. Philosophy, which is now to occupy our attention, has not equal attractions for all hearers or readers; nor is it by any means equally familiar to every mind, and congenial to every taste. It requires a laborious attention to the gravity of its objects, and which it cannot retain by the same powers of fascination. When instruction addresses itself to the imagination and to the heart, as much as to our minds and our taste, we fly to meet it: but when it is addressed only to our reason, it must have hearers who are determined to be taught. Yet reason has likewise her peculiar interest, and may please the mind even by the exercise which she requires. Besides, she will here meet with no contention, nor will she occasion fatigue to the intellects; these powers we shall leave to profound scholars, and to the learned by profession, with all the delights which they afford. It is their business to approximate Aristotle and Plato, Epicurus and Zeno, the Portico and the Academy; to oppose them to each other, or to reconcile them; and to try to understand them throughout, when they would not have understood themselves. Brucker, Deslandes, and innumerable other authors, have passed their whole lives in wandering in this labyrinth; which resembles those inchanted castles in which Ariosto represents the knights-errant tilting at each other, always fighting without knowing with whom, or for what; and afterward, when they quit their residence of illusions, finding themselves just as they were before they entered, aud confessing that they had been long dreaming with their eyes wide open.

'Such is most frequently the result of a multitude of systems generated in the antient schools, and long since abandoned: but this is no ground for blaming the antients, who are certainly more excusable than the moderns for undertaking what they could never atchieve. The most natural error of the human mind, when it aspires to discover the origin of things, (that is, when it seeks what will never be found,) has always been for men to put themselves at once in the

place of the Creator, in order to perform over again, in imagination, the work of divine wisdom. It therefore follows that every philosopher has made a world of his own; one with fire, another with water, this with æther, and that with atoms. I shall certainly not entertain you with all these cosmogonies, which the curious may find recorded in innumerable books: happily, each promulgates his system without any inconvenience to mankind; and those of Descartes and Leibnitz have not been more dangerous than the rest. But these, however, are less excusable, because so many ages of experience ought to have instructed them that we should confine ourselves to the study of facts, and to the observation of phænomena, without pretending to divine first causes, the secrets of which belong to God as necessarily as the work itself: since each requires an infinitude of wisdom as well as of power.

'If at length men have ceased to explain the theory and the materials of the eternal Architect, it has only been since two men of sublime genius, the one in mathematics, the other in metaphysics, Newton and Locke, demonstrated as clearly as possible the laws of motion, and the powers of the human mind; both confessing at the same time the impossibility of discovering the cause which moves bodies, and the action of the thinking faculty by which animal motion is performed. Since this period, other philosophers (for so atheists call themselves, exclusively,) have taken the opposite side; and have written huge books, such as *the System of Nature*, to teach us how the world might have existed without a cause, how all exists *by itself*, and maintains itself *by itself* in an eternal and necessary order; and, with a mass of words and reasoning absolutely unintelligible, they conclude with this grand discovery, that *all is so, because it is so;* which is at once profound and luminous, and which luckily leaves the world just as it is. It is not by such reveries that our *philosophes* have been rendered pernicious: they have been no more able to derange the physical world than to understand it: but we may hence judge what they would have done, if the Creator had for a moment allowed them the direction of it, as he has for a moment permitted them to make experiments on the moral and physical world.

'In spite of the radical vice of all the systems of the antient philosophers respecting the first principles of things, if physiology were comprehended in our plan, it would not be difficult to shew that the antients have had just, ingenious, and extensive views of many general and particular points of natural history: but views always more or less defective and unproductive, for two reasons: 1st. the want of a greater progress in mathematics, in which they had not advanced so far as mechanics, which constituted the glory of Archimedes; 2dly. the want of method, which consists in an exact and complete analysis, and in a severe dialectic:—by the one, an object is examined in all its parts; by the other, we let nothing pass without proof, and never build on the basis of an hypothesis. This method has been known only to the moderns: whom it above all things has enabled to tread firm in the career of natural knowlege, and has conducted so far in every pursuit after physical and mathematical science. It is, however, to an antient that we owe the invention of Logic and

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the reasoning art, as we have seen in the epitome of Aristotle: yet he himself not only did not derive from this discovery all the advantages which might have been expected, but he marked out a path to error for the scholastics, who have followed him in those abstractions known under the name of *categories* and *universals*, which they have abused.'

Sect. I. *Plato.*—This philosopher was the first among the antients who spoke clearly of the unity of God, of the immortality of the soul, and of rewards and punishments after death, proportioned to conduct in life. These were probably the doctrines of Socrates. Plato acknowleged that the world had a beginning, and that God was its creator, the eternal and supreme architect, &c.

Sect. II. treats of *Plutarch;* who was always on the watch for events and anecdotes, and carefully recorded them. Plato and Aristotle were his favourite philosophers. He was hostile to the Stoics; and he was the best moralist of Pagan antiquity. M. DE LA HARPE gives a list of his principal moral essays. His doctrines concerning the Divinity are the same as those of Plato and Cicero.—The lecturer here considers not his biographical writings, which are described with due praise in the section of History: but what are called Plutarch's *Morals* are here chiefly discussed; and from them the author has selected and given translations of some of the best of his maxims, anecdotes, and characteristic traits and narratives; not forgetting to censure, gently, some small defects which are observable in the works of this admirable writer.

Sect. III. *Cicero.*—When the civil war broke out between Cæsar and Pompey, Cicero, retiring from that government in which arms had superseded laws, thought that he could not employ his time better than in the study of philosophy. He had always loved and cultivated this pursuit, as is manifest in all his works: but hitherto he could only bestow on it the few moments which he could steal from public affairs, in which he has been seen to act so important a part, both as an orator and a magistrate. In the space of five years, he had formed a complete course of Grecian philosophy, of which a considerable portion has perished. He invented metaphysical terms for the Romans, or gave them in Greek, since he first treated philosophical subjects in the Latin language; and these terms are still retained in our schools.

He was an academic,—that is, on the side of Socrates and Plato: admitting nothing to be nearer to truth than that it was *probable:* which Pyrrhonism is combated by the lecturer. Cicero writes in dialogue, like Plato; and he censures Epicurus, as does the present author, in spite of his own (Epicurus's) good life,

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which is always made an apology for his doctrines. Zeno and Stoicism find as little quarter. Excess either in voluptuousness or in virtue does not contribute to *general* happiness; and Cicero here, as in the Murena cause, ridicules the principles of the Portico.—The Epicurean blasphemies, though they are said to be despised by Cicero, should not have been given by M. DE LA HARPE without a refutation of them.—Cicero's *treatise on moral duties* is recommended to be read by youth in the course of education; and his essays on *friendship* and *old age* are justly praised as of the most general use at all times and in all places.

Sect. IV. *Seneca.*—The author begins this section with an account of the violent controversy between *Diderot* and *La Grange*, concerning the merit and principles of Seneca *. Besides giving vent to his ire against *La Grange* for censuring Seneca's philosophy, and doubting his virtue, Diderot attacked *J. J. Rousseau* in a philippic so furious, that all Europe, with whom the citizen of Geneva was then in high favour, (his *Contrat Social* had not then been so much read as his *Profession de foi du Vicaire Savoyard*,) was much disgusted. Seneca's predictions respecting comets, which alone are spared by the lecturer in all his *philosophical questions*, were supposed by *Bailly* to have been suggested by the Chaldeans: "they are too deep for the Romans at the time in which Seneca flourished."

The champions for Plato and Seneca equally exaggerate the virtues and the defects of their heroes. Socrates, Plato, and Cicero, according to *Diderot*, are bad philosophers; and Seneca is still worse than bad, he is feeble, in the opinion of the present lecturer. Seneca is a great preacher of suicide: he says that "to take from Cato his poniard is envying him his immortality."—"The sage wants no friends, nothing external. All his resources are centered in his own mind; he lives but on what that furnishes."—Seneca has been often charged with corrupting the Latin language by affectation: but M. DE LA HARPE has accused him of being a bad logician, a bad reasoner, and, with all his morality, a preacher of doctrines noxious to society. 'What (says he) is good in him should be reduced one third; and what is well said may be condensed in a few pages. He speaks much about the Divinity; which, however, he makes as supine and useless as that of Epicurus.' *Diderot* seldom sees either an inconsistency or an imperfection in his favourite philosopher: but the reader of his essay must observe many in the commentator; who, like his hero, praises at one time that which he censures at another.

* See *Essai sur la Vie de Sénèque le Philosophe, sur ses Ecrits*, &c. Paris, 1779.

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We may cease to wonder at the tyranny and atrocities committed by Nero, since the adulation of Seneca, his tutor, conferred on him omnipotence, in his treatise on *Clemency*; which was addressed to him during the second year of his reign, and before he was twenty years old; and which made him "the representative of the Divinity, with absolute power over the life and death of nations, in whose hands are placed the fate and fortune of each individual on earth." *—This treatise, so highly extolled by *Diderot*, is admirably analyzed by the present writer: but unluckily that work, which has cost him so much pains to confute it, and his auditors so much time and patience to hear it discussed, was little noticed when published, and seems to have been totally forgotten till revived at the Institute by M. DE LA HARPE; who (see p. 305 of this 2d part of his IIId. vol.) has pointed out the source of all *Diderot*'s bile against the censurers of the philosopher Seneca, by stating that, in pleading the cause of the latter, he was only defending himself and his brother *philosophes*, against the critics of a new translation of Seneca's works.

Whenever a book is praised or censured with a party spirit, the commendation or the blame is alike overcharged; and it seems as if the character given of Seneca's writings by the judicious and candid Quintilian†, who saw his defects without being blind to his abilities, was the nearest to the truth, when, though he accuses him of having corrupted Roman eloquence by an affected style, which he did not wish young students to imitate, he says: "*Cujus (Senecæ) multæ alioqui et magnæ virtutes fuerunt: ingenium facile et copiosum, plurimum studii, multarum rerum cognitio.*"

Chap. III. *Of the different kinds of literature of antient Greece and Rome.*

On this subject, the author has bestowed but a few pages; observing that miscellaneous literature was less abundant with the antients than the moderns. Few romances were produced by the Greeks, and only the Golden Ass of Apuleius by the Romans. Dionysius Halicarnassus is here treated more as an antiquary than an historian: but he is allowed to be excellent in every respect, except style and connection of narrative. His facts are given from high authority, stript of the marvellous, and are minute and curious.—After this discussion, we have short characters of Lucian, Pausanias, Varro, Columella, Vitruvius, Ælian, Athenæus, Diogenes Laertius, Valerius Maximus, Aulus Gellius, Macrobius, &c. to the end of the third volume.

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* Seneca *de Clementiâ.* † *Instit. Orator. lib.* 10. *num.* 128.

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We have lately received the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, (in two parts,) and 12th volumes of this work; and also a new publication of this laborious author, containing his Literary Correspondence with the late Emperor of Russia, &c. in 4 vols. 8vo.

[*To be continued.*]

D.r B....y.

ART. VII. *Des Causes des Révolutions, et de leurs Effets; &c. i. e.* On the Causes of Revolutions, and their Effects; or, Historical and Political Considerations on the Manners which produce, accompany, and follow Revolutions. By J. BLANC DE VOLX. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s. sewed.

IN the first of these volumes, the reader is presented with the result of the application of historic knowlege, under the guidance of sound judgment and respectable discriminating powers, to the subject of the French Revolution. The work opens with a sort of natural history of Revolutions; several of which pass under review, while their causes, effects, and consequences are assigned and stated. That of France is connected with events up to the origin of the monarchy.—In going over this wide field, with which the writer shews himself well acquainted, the several changes that have taken place in the situation of the *noblesse* are accurately detailed; and the characters which introduce themselves are delineated with great justice:—those of Louis XI. *Richelieu*, and Louis XIV., are masterly sketches. In the long period over which he travels, M. DE VOLX happily marks and ably connects those decisive impulses, which prepared the catastrophe that our days have witnessed: but, in this excursion, he has stopped longer on his road than it was requisite for him to have been delayed. Had he given his readers credit for a knowlege of the facts, and been contented with drawing inferences from them, he might have entered more into a detail of the circumstances immediately preceding the grand *denouement*; which is the more to be wished, as he entertains views very different from those of preceding writers on the present subject. Moderation, dispassionate temper, and the appearance of great impartiality, distinguish his labours; and we have attended to him with great satisfaction and instruction.

M. DE V. traces all Revolutions to three causes; 1. Despotism in the depositaries of public authority; 2. The corruption of the mass of the people; 3. The diffusion of knowlege.—Revolutions wrought by conquests, he considers rather as changes of dynasties, than as Revolutions properly so called.

Speaking

Speaking of Louis XI. he says, '*Nature had formed him for a tyrant, but this tyrant knew how to reign.*' The skill of this monarch in conducting public affairs, both internally and externally, has perhaps never been equalled. *Richelieu* may have approached him in discernment, in courage, and in perseverance: but we think that he fell short of Louis in address; and certainly the administration of the minister, though he reigned not less absolutely, was a less distinguishing epoch in the history of France. To those who read with proper discrimination,—and none but such read any thing to much advantage,—no histories deserve to be more recommended than those of the two great characters above mentioned. Admitting that duplicity and perfidy were leading features in the portrait of Louis, M. Blanc de Volx very properly adds: 'but all the princes, with whom he had to deal, were not less distinguished by these characteristics than himself. Frederic III., Charles the Bold, John of Arragon, the Popes, Maximilian of Austria, Edward IV., the Dukes of Savoy, Ferdinand, and Isabella,—in fine, his own great vassals,—were habituated to bad faith and perjury. If, surveying the conduct of most of the present great potentates, we call this *the age of rapacity*, we should call that of the above groupe, *the age of perfidy*.'

The author considers the principles of the reformers as introductory to those which have convulsed the present age. Like Mr. Burke, he extols chivalry, and mourns over its fall in the fields of Pavia; where, according to him, it expired when Francis I. became a captive. This Prince, he says, exhibited the frankness of a true knight; while his crafty rival substituted *address* in its place, and frequently *perfidy*. The example of Francis was lost on the age, while that of the Austrian was copied by multitudes, in consequence of the growing degradation of manners

In M. de Volx's opinion, Louis XIV. was a more systematic tyrant than he has been generally deemed. According to him, this monarch refused *La Fontaine* his patronage, because of the Poet's devotion to the unfortunate *Fouquet*, and because he dreaded the effects of his spirited maxims;—he disgraced *Fenelon* because he could not endure the doctrines scattered through the pages of his immortal romance;—he broke up the society of *Port Royal*, because the principles inculcated in the logic of *Nicoli*, and professed by that celebrated fraternity, gave him alarm;—he revoked the edict of Nantes, and banished the Protestants, as a politician and not as a bigot;—actuated in reality by his fears, and only in appearance by the exhortations of his mistress and his confessor, our author insists, he banished the sectaries because he regarded their principles as hostile to

arbitrary power, and because he could not forget the ephemeral republic of Rochelle, and the fate of Charles the First.

We do not mean to controvert the position that Protestantism and arbitrary power are at variance: God grant that they may always continue so! but it is a fact with which the present writer must be acquainted, that the Protestants of France were, for a long time, zealous preachers of passive obedience and non-resistance; and that a proposition, consecrating those principles, having unanimously passed the *Tiers-états* of 1614, was rejected by the estate of the Clergy, and through its exertions by that of the Nobles. The part taken in this affair by Cardinal *du Perron*, and the controversy to which it gave rise between him and our James I. are well known. If we concede to the author, that this deference to absolute power arose rather from the accidental circumstances in which the Protestants found themselves, than from their principles, we are far from agreeing with him when he says that the Revocation of the edict of Nantes was a stroke of sound policy in an arbitrary prince, who wished to perpetuate arbitrary power; and one which a Louis XI. and a *Richelieu*, a Julius Cæsar and a Frederic, would have adopted in like circumstances. Has M. DE V. forgotten what recent records testify, and what is almost within the recollection of the aged? On the adoption of this not less impolitic than iniquitous measure, the moanings of the sufferers resounded in every corner of Protestant Europe; pulpits invoked the vengeance of the Almighty, and roused the resentment of rulers and of people against the persecutor; the sufferers spared not their cruel oppressor, but every where described him in the most hideous colours; he was no longer, in the eyes of Europe, the *grand monarque*, but the odious tyrant, the dupe of monks, and the prey of mistresses; and it is observable that the decline of the monarchy itself almost bears date from the period of that horrible transaction.

M. DE VOLX proposes and labours to solve the question, why, in a state of equal corruption of manners, the present Revolution in France, and that of Rome at the close of the Republic, had issues so different;—the one establishing and the other extinguishing liberty? Perhaps many of our readers will think that he would have done better, had he first ascertained the fact of this difference.

Among the projects entertained by *Robespierre*, one very worthy of him, and which had escaped us, is mentioned in this publication. It was proposed to convert the rising generation into children of the Republic. Infants, on arriving at the age of two years, were to be torn from the maternal bosom, and to be taken to large hospitals, under the denomination of schools.

They

They were not to bear the paternal names, but those of some Greek or Roman, in order to preclude every possibility of their being ever recognized by their relatives:—the native of the Pyrenees was to be transported to the Ardennes, that of the banks of the Drôme to Finisterre, and so of the rest, with the view of forming their manners and habits consistently with the new order of things. Certainly, nothing more horrid can be devised by the imagination of man.

M. DE VOLX gives the following account of the different classes of Royalists in France:

'The peasant tells you, "I desire a king, but the Seigneur must not have the power of sending me to the galleys for killing a rabbit;" —the citizen says, "I desire a king, but the nobleman must not oppress me by feudal impositions; and I wish to be allowed to rise to those situations for which my talents and taste may fit me:"—the rich man says, "I desire a king, but he must not be absolute lord of my destiny; and he must not have it in his power to impose what taxes he pleases;"—and the man of letters says, "I desire a king, but his power must be defined by laws which he is not to enact, to execute, nor to apply."

From various passages which occur in the course of these volumes, it appears that those who consider the state of France as full of distress and difficulties come nearer to the truth than their opponents. Had we time, and did our limits allow us, to collect the traits which lie dispersed in these pages, they would constitute as gloomy a picture as any that has been drawn by the bitterest enemies of the republic.

For the plans of the institutions, by which this author proposes to renovate virtue and patriotism among his countrymen, we must refer to his second volume. The institutions of antiquity were nicely adapted to the mythology, the prevailing bent, the political relations, and the manners and habits of the several nations among whom they existed. M. DE VOLX appears to us not to be sufficiently aware of this circumstance, and to copy too freely from these sources. That society may be benefited by institutions of the nature of those which he recommends, we are far from denying: but we are of opinion that he is not happy in his plans. The general idea, however, is worth the attention of those who possess the requisite qualifications, and who feel the generous ambition of deserving well of their country; while the author merits praise for the zeal and ability with which he presses the subject on public attention.

Though M. DE VOLX is either no Christian or wants courage to avow his faith, he seems deeply impressed with the importance of religious principles to the welfare of a state. In

his judgment, the lower classes are to be restrained from the commission of crimes, only by the fear of the scaffold and of hell. 'See, (he says,) since you have taught the peasant to brave the scaffold, since you have banished from his breast the hope and the fear of heaven, how assassinations and crimes of all sorts multiply in an alarming progression. Behold with what brutal courage the malefactor mounts the scaffold on which he is to expiate his offences. Indifferent about the future, which he has been instructed not to regard, without restraint, and without terror, he does not fear to die, because he believes that death is an *eternal sleep*.'

This author eloquently describes the political ill effects of atheism, and remonstrates against tolerating the open profession of it:

'The republic (he says) tolerates all religions; and this moral principle is a political precept dictated by reason: but does not the public welfare assign limits to it? Should it be extended to those innovators who, by proclaiming their disconsolate doctrine, render men immoral? Has government no rein to curb these seditious jugglers, who attack society in its first elements, and who destroy all its springs? If toleration is to be extended to the brutal man who professes atheism, does it not terminate at the moment when the unhappy madman constitutes himself chief of a sect without God, and aspires to form disciples; at the moment when he promulgates his doctrines; when he endeavours to eradicate from the hearts of the wicked, the only sentiment which restrains them; and when he deprives the state of the moral security which it finds in the religious opinions of its citizens?'

M. DE VOLX corroborates his opinions by an anecdote which he quotes respecting *Voltaire*. *Diderot*, and other friends, dining at Ferney, the conversation turned on the subject of religion; and one of the guests spoke warmly in favour of atheism. *Voltaire* stopped him, ordered the servants out of the room, fastened the door, and taking his place, said, *Gentlemen, I do not chuse to be assassinated to-night; now that no other person is present, you may talk.*

We must here dismiss this work; repeating that it is very creditable to the moderation, the abilities, and the attainments of the author.

Jo.

ART. VIII. M. MARCHAND'S *Voyage round the World, during the Years* 1790, 1791, *and* 1792.

[*Article concluded from the Appendix to vol.* XXXIV. *p.* 463.]

As our remarks on this publication have already extended to a considerable length, we shall comprize the remainder of our account in as short a compass as the variety and quantity of

of materials will permit.—M. MARCHAND sailed from China December 6, 1791; arrived at the Isle of France towards the end of January following; staid there above two months to recruit his crew, repair his vessel, purchase stock, &c. &c.; and then sailed for the Isle of *Bourbon*, now called the Isle of *Reunion*, to take in a cargo of coffee.—The editor, *M. Fleurieu*, observes respecting the fur-trade from the west coast of North America to China, that the mutual interest of the traders requires a temporary forbearance, to prevent the market from being constantly glutted; and also lest the animal itself, the sea-otter, should be totally exterminated:—but there appears to be little chance of such a forbearance, at least while the trade continues to yield profit, since it could be effected only by a general agreement among all the nations interested.

The navigation of the *Solide* from China is described minutely, and at length. *M. Fleurieu* has given a new chart of the *Streights of Billiton*, formed from a compilation of many different authorities; and he has proposed some other corrections for the chart of the Chinese seas: but we apprehend that he sometimes places too much reliance on the accuracy of the log-book and reckoning, considering that the ship was unprovided with a chronometer.

The voyagers arrived at *Toulon*, August 14, 1792, after an absence of only twenty months; a very short space of time, considering that the ship was a heavy sailer, and that a hundred and ten days were consumed in stoppages in different ports. We will not accuse M. MARCHAND of acting with impatience while employed on the main purposes of the expedition; yet we cannot forbear to observe that his resolves were sudden, and that his execution was prompt. He appears to have been the last of the traders that arrived on the coast of America, and he endeavoured to be the first that left it; and at Macao he remained only eight days.

A table of the ship's route shews her position every day at noon, both according to the dead reckoning, and to the account corrected by observations: from which is seen the effect of currents in different parts of the navigation. The general result of a great many instances seems to establish it as a principle, that, in the open seas, currents are generated and governed by the prevailing winds. In the usual trade winds between the tropics, the ship was constantly found more to the westward than the course and distance sailed, as estimated by the dead reckoning, would warrant; and in high latitudes, where the westerly winds are most prevalent, the ship was generally to the eastward of the reckoning.

Respecting an opinion entertained among seamen, relative to the flight of such birds as are supposed seldom to quit the neighbourhood of land, it is to be observed that, when any of these are seen in strange seas, it is usually imagined that land lies in the direction *towards* which they bend their course. If birds of this description be seen in flocks, the probability must be equal that land lies in the direction *from* which they come. Single land birds, seen at sea, may reasonably be supposed to have been blown from the coast by strong winds; and the direction in which the wind has recently been most violent, when it can be ascertained, is a good guide for conjecture.

In recommending ships to touch at the *Marquesas*, as more convenient than *Otaheite*, when coming from *Cape Horn* and bound to the northern coast of America, the author says that, 'from *Cape Horn* to the *Marquesas*, there is one continued clear open sea, free from shoals and dangers; which allows the use of all the sails as safely during the night as in the day.' It must by no means be admitted, however, in our judgment, that the sea between *Cape Horn* and the *Marquesas* has been sufficiently examined to warrant such a description.

The editor's inquiries concerning the discoveries of Sir Francis Drake are intended to prove that the southern lands, seen by him, are no others than the south-western part of *Terra del Fuego*. The '*Examen critique*' of *Roggeween*'s voyage is an essay towards ascertaining the geographical position of the different discoveries of that navigator; in which the parts that have been seen by more modern voyagers are separated from those of his discoveries concerning which we have only his relation. *M. Fleurieu* undertakes, in this examination, to demonstrate that *Easter Island* and *Davis's Land* are not the same: but we think that neither his evidence nor his arguments will be deemed convincing. As *M. de la Peyrouse* entertained a similar opinion, we shall venture a few remarks on the subject. *M. Fleurieu* writes:

'Before we quit Easter Island, I ought to remove a doubt or a pretension that the English have raised on this discovery of *Roggeween*: they would have us believe that this island is the land which the English freebooter, Davis, says he discovered in 1687, in 27° 20′ south latitude. As the relation of *Lionel Wafer* is the only account that we have of Davis's voyage, we have inserted an extract of the part relative to the discovery of *Davis's Land*.

'Davis had sailed from the *Gallipago Islands* towards the south, varying his route from south to south-east, till he reached the parallel of 27° 20′ south. [Here follows the extract, which, as it is not copied exactly from Wafer's account, we give from the original.]

"We steered S. by E. ½ E. until we came to the latitude of 27° 20′ south,

south; when, about two hours before day, we fell in with a small low sandy island, and heard a great roaring noise like that of the sea beating upon the shore, right a head of the ship. Whereupon the sailors, fearing to fall foul upon the shore before day; desired the Captain to put the ship about, and to stand off till day appeared; to which the Captain gave his consent. So we plied off till day, and then stood in again with the land; which proved to be a small flat island without the guard of any rocks. We stood within $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile of the shore, and could see it plainly, for 'twas a clear morning. To the westward about twelve leagues, by judgment, we saw a range of high land, which we took to be islands, for there were several partitions in the prospect. This land seemed to reach 14 or 16 leagues in a range, and there came thence great flocks of fowls. I and many of our men would have made this land, and have gone ashore at it, but the Captain would not permit it. The small sandy island is situated 500 leagues from *Copayapo* on the coast of *Chili*, and 600 leagues from the *Gallipagos*."

A contradictory circumstance in this account is, that, steering S. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E., they should find themselves so far to the westward. *M. de la Peyrouse*, therefore, supposed that the land seen by *Davis* was the Island *St. Felix*, which is placed in the charts near 30° more to the eastward, and according to some in 20° 30′ south latitude: but the more important particulars of Wafer's account are corroborated by the testimony of Dampier; who writes that he was told by Captain Davis that, in the latitude of 27° S. and at the distance of 500 leagues from *Copayapo*, he saw a small sandy island, and to the westward of it a long tract of pretty high land. In going to the southward from the *Gallipagos* through the south-east trade wind, it cannot be extraordinary that a ship should be forced to the westward as far as *Easter Island*: but there is reason for suspecting the accuracy of Wafer's account of the course. *M. Fleurieu*, however, rests his proofs principally on the extent of *Easter Island* not corresponding with that of the land described by Davis; and on the small sandy island not having been seen by any other navigator, especially by *La Peyrouse*, who made *Easter Island* in a direction which he conceived favourable for that purpose. With respect to the first circumstance, as Davis did not approach within less than twelve leagues of the land to the westward, he was enabled only to make a rough estimate of its extent; and his statement does not greatly disagree from the chart of the island published with *La Peyrouse*'s voyage, which gives it a length of twelve leagues. *Easter Island*, likewise, being mountainous, would make it appear at a distance like a range of separate islands. As to the sandy island, it is well known that such little spots, but just elevated above the level of the sea, are seldom visible at more than four miles distance,

and therefore are not easy to find *en passant*, from an account in which no specific bearings by compass are given. It cannot be doubted that Davis's account occasioned *Easter Island* to be seen by *Roggeween*, Cook, and *La Peyrouse*, who each searched for the land of Davis, but could discover no other than *Easter Island* in that neighbourhood. On the whole, the presumptive circumstances are so strongly in favour of *Easter Island* being the land seen by Davis, that, unless some land better answering the description shall be discovered, we cannot cease to believe in their identity.

In these dissertations, and in various other parts of the work, we find heavy charges against the English, and especially against their navigators; for national partiality. The accusation may not be altogether unfounded: but it is certainly true that the charge might be retorted on *M. Fleurieu*,—evidence of which he has *plentifully*, if not *liberally*, furnished. A similar complaint might indeed be urged against the people of every country, who have the least spark of the *amor patriæ* in their composition; yet, when it exceeds temperate bounds, it justly merits reprehension. If, however, literary and scientific men cannot divest themselves, at least in their publications, of national partialities, we are not to wonder that they should occasionally break forth in the accounts of seamen; who, from their profession, are less accustomed to ceremonious observances. *M. Fleurieu* says that 'the English, when discoveries are in question, are desirous of attributing all the honour to their own nation, and have a manner of reasoning peculiar to themselves.' English navigators, perhaps, have not been slow in claiming at least as much as they are intitled to demand: yet *M. Fleurieu* must allow that, previously to the expedition of *M. de la Peyrouse*, the exertions of the French government to promote discovery bore a very inferior proportion to those of the English government.

We come now to a memoir intitled 'Observations on the Hydrographical Division of the Globe, with alterations proposed in the nomenclature, &c.' which was read at different times of the years 7 and 8 at the National Institute, and at the Board of Longitude.

'My first object in these observations,' says the author, 'has been to restore the hydrographic division, the division of seas, to principles existing in nature; and to reform the qualifications, designations, and vicious denominations, which accidental circumstances, local partialities, and, very often, ignorance, have imposed on the different portions of the grand mass of waters.

'The second is to rectify the nomenclature; to designate each portion of the coast of the two Continents by its most suitable appellation;

pellation; to re-establish the particular denominations which mark the epoch of discovery, and recall the names of the discoverers; and, finally, to assign to each maritime nation that share in the honour of discovery which it is justly intitled to claim. The chart which I now publish presents only a part of the alterations under discussion: a new one will succeed, which will comprehend the whole, if the approbation of navigators and geographers, who understand and can appreciate the motives, shall sanction the proposed changes.

'The particular denominations that have been attached to the different portions of the general mass of waters, which embrace the two Continents, owe their origin either to the situation of those portions with respect to the countries bordering on the ocean which were first civilized, or to the route held by the navigators who successively discovered those seas. The Europeans, who have done every thing in geography, have made the whole subservient to Europe; and, according to them, the entire world ought to bend to this centre: thus they have called the part of the ocean which is situated to the west with respect to Europe, the *Western Ocean:* but, since to the west of this ocean there exists another land, shall we oblige the men who inhabit it, to call by the name of Western Ocean, i. e. the ocean in which the sun sets, the sea whence they always observe the sun to rise?'

The author criticizes the article *Atlantique* in the French Encyclopédie, (*Paris edit. fol.*) which is thus explained: "*Océan Atlantique.* It is thus that formerly was called, and sometimes at the present day is named, that part of the ocean which lies between Africa and America, and which is more commonly designated by the name of the North Sea." *M. Fleurieu* remarks that some of the old navigators have used the expression of *passing from the North Sea into the South Sea,* when they have sailed round Cape Horn, or through the Streights of Magellan; which, he justly observes, was a vicious mode of denomination, and was not sufficient authority to justify its being used by *D'Alembert,* who was the author of the article just quoted from the Encyclopédie.

Regarding the terrestrial globe in a general point of view, *M. Fleurieu* divides the land into two Continents, or great islands; one containing Europe, Asia, and Africa; the other, the two Americas. The term *Ocean* he considers as a collective denomination, comprehending the universality of waters which embrace the two Continents. Nevertheless, in making two grand divisions, he names the first the *Atlantic Ocean* in which he includes all the sea between the western shores of Europe and Africa, and the eastern coast of the two Americas. The second division he calls, *par excellence,* the *Great Ocean,* in which is comprehended all the sea West of America, as far North as *Behring's Streights,* and as far West as to the coast of Africa. These grand divisions, likewise, have each their

divisions and subdivisions. The *Atlantic* he subdivides into *North Atlantic*, *Equinoctial Atlantic*, and *South Atlantic*.—The division into northern and southern, we think, it might be convenient to adopt: but, since only the clear open parts of the sea are considered as forming the *Atlantic*, it appears to us less necessary to distinguish separately the Equinoctial part. By its lapsing into the two others, the Equator would become the line of partition.

Following the same principle, the author subdivides the '*Great Ocean*' into three, *i. e.* the *Great Northern Ocean;* the *Great Equinoctial Ocean;* and the *Great Southern Ocean:* but he finds himself here obliged to allow a fourth division for the Indian Sea; and to make the coast of China, with the eastern coast of New Holland, the western limits of his *Grand Ocean*. 'It is with regret,' he says, 'and yielding to an abuse of language too generally adopted, that I have consented to write on my chart the name of *Indian Sea:* for with what propriety can that be called a sea, which, at its entrance, extends more than fifteen hundred geographical leagues, an opening almost equal to one quarter of the circumference of the globe? I can only acknowlege, for a sea, such a portion of the waters of the ocean as is inclosed on all sides by portions of continent; or by islands, which, forming a bason, leave one or more openings for the waters, and for vessels to communicate with the ocean.' To so restrained a signification of the word *sea*, many will object. *M. Fleurieu* might, however, have saved himself this difficulty; since, as he has consented to apply the denomination *ocean* to other portions, we see little objection to its being used here; and to allowing the sea from the eastern coast of Africa to the Asiatic islands, to retain the name of *Indian Ocean.*

We agree with the author that it is an evident impropriety, to call by the name of *Pacific* those portions of the '*Great Ocean*' which are in high latitudes; and such could not have been the intention of the original discoverer. Still more improperly does the appellation of *South Sea* apply to the northern part of the *Great Ocean.*

Here *M. Fleurieu* remarks that

'The southern hemisphere is the true domain of the ocean, as the northern hemisphere is of the earth. If, however, a map of the world were projected on the horizon of *Paris*, we should see the whole of the land which we name the four quarters of the world, with the exception of the sharp southern part of America, contained in one hemisphere, which might be called the Terrestrial hemisphere; while in the opposite, to which the denomination of Maritime hemisphere might well be applied, there would appear only this same point

point of America, and one great continued sea, in which are scattered some insulated lands.'

We cannot take notice of all the changes proposed in the nomenclature by *M. Fleurieu.* After the general and larger divisions, he makes a circuit round the coast of the two Continents, taking into his account all the smaller seas.—To come nearer home; he proposes that the *Bay of Biscay* shall be called the *Gulf of France.*

'Recollecting (says he) that in former ages this gulf was named *Sinus gallicus*, we are not apprehensive that we shall incur the charge of being *national* in this alteration of the name; for do not the French represent the Gauls?

'The channel which separates France from England we improperly call *La Manche*, a name which would be well replaced by that of the *Canal de France;* if the English, who would have this arm of the sea regarded as a demesne of the British isles, had not been beforehand with us, and had not long since named it the *British Channel.* On both sides, the pretensions and rights, if the sea can ever be deemed exclusive property, are equally founded; and if two states, separated by nature, and yet more by rivalship, could agree in fixing on one common denomination, the sea between the two countries might be called the *Channel of France and England.*'

Another object of contention, the streights between *Dover* and *Calais*, *M. Fleurieu* has decided happily enough; by suggesting 'that the French shall continue to write on their charts *Pas* or *Détroit de Calais*, while the English continue to mark on theirs, *Streights of Dover.*'

The author objects to the name of *German Ocean* for the sea between the eastern coast of Great Britain and the Continent; and he proposes to change it for that of the *British Gulf.* 'I observe,' he says, 'that this gulf is bounded on its western side, the whole of its length, by the coasts of England and Scotland, and that the Orkney and Shetland isles are dependencies on Great Britain; while the boundaries on the eastern side are formed of heterogeneous parts,—of portions of the coasts of different nations.'—It is not usual in geography, however, to distinguish by the name of *Gulf* any portion of sea which has an open communication at each extremity with other seas.

In this reform of nomenclature, the islands of the *Great Ocean* are not neglected. They are divided into two classes,—archipelagos, and straggling or solitary islands. In the narrative of M. MARCHAND's voyage, *M. Fleurieu* has introduced a dissertation on the *Sandwich Islands;* of which he pronounces that the Spaniards were the original discoverers, and that *Owhyhee* is the island which was by them named *La Mesa.*

To elucidate the subject, two charts, one of them representing the Sandwich Islands, and the other the *Group de la Mesa*, copied from the chart found by Commodore Anson in the Spanish Galleon, and both executed on the same scale, are placed next to each other in one plate. The author's strongest argument is that *La Mesa* signifies a table; and he remarks that the summit of the mountain called *Mona Roa*, in *Owhyhee*, is Table Land. The agreement in latitude is also favourable to his hypothesis: but still there are difficulties which cannot be removed. *Owhyhee* is twenty-two degrees more west than the situation ascribed to *La Mesa*. This, however, the author treats lightly; and he asserts that a difference of twenty-two degrees is no proof against the identity of the two groupes. The *Salomon islands*, he remarks, occupied for two centuries positions on the charts so dissimilar, that the extremes differed fifty degrees: but, in this case, the disagreement was not in the longitude, but in the name being applied to different lands. *Le Maire* believed *Hope* and *Horn* islands to be the *Salomon islands;* and in the accounts of some of the early discoveries, we read of land seen in 64° S. latitude "to the N. W. of which were the *Salomon islands.*" The navigators of those times were, no doubt, ill provided with the means of ascertaining their position in longitude: but we do not know any instance among the Spanish discoveries which have been recognized in late times, and where the identity of the land has been unquestionable, of the situation being misplaced in so great a degree as to countenance the belief that *Owhyhee* and *La Mesa* are the same.

By way of comparison, *M. Fleurieu* has enumerated all the particulars in which the two groupes appear to have resemblance, and which he sums up in the following words: 'Thus we see that, in order to describe the eastern groupe of the *Sandwich islands*, I have only had to repeat what I had said in describing the groupe *de la Mesa:* the same latitude, the same bearings, the same relative position of the islands among themselves, and the same number and total extent;—it is not possible to unite more characters of identity.' Perhaps, we examine with a pre-disposition not similar to that of *M. Fleurieu*, since we do not find this strong resemblance. *Owhyhee* is much more in magnitude than all the rest of the Sandwich islands taken together; and *La Mesa* is nearly equalled in size by three other islands of the same groupe. *Owhyhee* is the easternmost of the Sandwich islands: in the Spanish groupe, there are two islands to the eastward of *La Mesa*; and the islands to the westward, in their situation with respect to each other, do not correspond with the situation of the western of

the

the *Sandwich islands.* *M. Fleurieu* says of *La Disgraciada*, that 'its not having been seen by Capt. Cook is no proof that it does not exist:' but a large island situated to the N. E., within twenty-five leagues of *Owhyhee*, could not have escaped being seen by some of the vessels trading to the N. W. coast of America, who have made it their practice between the trading seasons to visit *Owhyhee* for provisions. To obviate this objection, the author supposes it probable that *La Disgraciada* and *La Mesa* were discovered by different navigators, and consequently laid down from different reckonings. This is an acknowlegement that *M. Fleurieu* himself suspected some of his 'characters of identity.'—We shall only add on this subject, that, if it could even be proved that he was right in his conjectures, yet the position of a discovery being assigned so erroneously as to differ twenty-two degrees from the truth, the claim is in fact lost, and is left open to a future and more accurate discoverer.

The method of argument adopted by *M. Fleurieu* carries him on too smoothly: he begins with conjecture, convinces himself not unwillingly, and then assumes direct assertion, dropping all appearance of doubt, as if the case were fully established. In this manner, the *Sandwich islands* are mentioned as Spanish discoveries in the memoir on the nomenclature: but respect to the memory of Capt. Cook induces him to allow that they should retain their name of the *Sandwich islands.*

Every one must acknowlege that the present nomenclature in hydrography is incorrect, and in many instances vicious. The system proposed by *M. Fleurieu*, also, is in some parts objectionable, and in others confused; as indeed the first rudiments of a new branch of science almost constantly are, till corrected and matured by succeeding commentators. His memoir, however, contains many useful ideas. He particularly censures the custom of translating into other languages the names given by original discoverers, as being productive of much perplexity; and he instances a bay on the south coast of *Java*, which in different charts, according to the different languages, is distinguished by the various appellations of *Vleer Muys Bay; Flitter Mouse Bay;* and *Bai des Chauve-Souris;*—and a French translator of Dampier's voyages has altered Cape Horn into *Cap Cornu.*—We observe, *en passant*, that this censure might be applied to History as well as to Geography. The substitutes, in some languages, for the old Greek and Roman names, are equally perplexing and ludicrous.—The present author joins in the regret and indignation which has frequently been expressed at the name of America being given to the New

Continent,

Continent, to the total exclusion of the name of *Columbus:* yet he thinks that this usurpation is too strongly sanctioned by time to admit of remedy. We are, nevertheless, inclined to believe that, if this were included among the proposed alterations, few would find more willing partizans, or be more readily adopted.—In the conclusion, the editor observes; 'if the force of habit would yield to reason, the geographers of different nations would be led insensibly to adopt an hydrographical division and nomenclature, which, being of no particular time, country, or people, would agree with all; and which ought to be as invariable as the principles on which they are founded.'

There now remains to be noticed the Treatise on 'the Application of the Decimal Metrical System to Hydrography, and to Nautical Calculations; proposing means to facilitate its establishment, and accompanied by tables for that purpose.' In meditating a change of such magnitude, an inquiry into the causes which originally occasioned the adoption of the sexagesimal mode of reckoning, in astronomical and geographical calculations, might with propriety have been the first consideration. *M. Fleurieu*, however, commences with a remark that the decimal is in all cases preferable to every other mode of reckoning. His words are; 'the advantage of a decimal metrical system, suitable to all countries, and applicable to all calculations, is so generally acknowleged, as promoting the facility of operations, that every one must regret that it has not been established.' —According to this position, the *desideratum* is to arrive at establishing decimal measures with the least possible inconvenience.—Before we offer farther comment, we shall briefly state the outline of *M. Fleurieu*'s plan.

1. He proposes that the circumference of the circle shall be subjected to a decimal division; and accordingly that the meridians, the parallels, and the circle of the horizon represented by that of the compass, shall be divided into 400 degrees, the degree into 100 minutes, the minute into 100 seconds, &c. Thus a degree of the decimal circle would answer to 54 minutes of the sexagesimal circle.

2dly, The diurnal revolution of the earth, at present divided into 24 hours, and the hour into 60 minutes, &c. is to be divided into ten hours, and each hour into 100 minutes, &c. Thus, one hour of the new division of the day will be equal to 2 hours and 24 minutes of the old.

3dly, The geographical league and mile are to give place to *Kilomètres*, *Miriamètres*, &c. which are to be aliquot parts of the new terrestrial degree.—All the smaller measures, with the lead line, log line, and glass, are to undergo correspondent alterations.

To

To facilitate the introduction of this new system, it is proposed that charts, tables, and instruments, shall previously be prepared; and that the first new charts shall be provided with scales, or graduations, of both decimal and sexagesimal parts. Tables, likewise, are calculated for the conversion of the old measures into their equivalents in the new, and *vice versâ*.

After having explained the principles of his system, the author enters into the minutiæ of the different calculations, with extraordinary patience. The unity of the metrical system he considers to be indispensably requisite in the operations of navigation, and therefore the new system should be introduced not in parts, but entire.

Such are the principal heads of *M. Fleurieu*'s plan. We agree in the general principle, that decimal arithmetic is found by experience to be the reckoning most suited to the ideas of mankind. Whether it be that, in our earliest attempts at reckoning, we naturally assist ourselves by counting with the fingers, and that thus our ideas become most habituated to decimal arithmetic; or whether it proceeds from some more hidden cause; we shall not endeavour to explain: but the fact, we believe, is universal; for we do not recollect that, among all the nations and tribes, civilized or uncivilized, of whom we have knowlege, any other than the decimal mode of reckoning has been found to prevail. Accordingly, all measures or quantities which have analogy only or principally to the unit, and which are therefore most subject to arbitrary or capricious notation, may with great convenience be reduced to decimal reckoning: but some quantities are, in their own natures, otherwise measured, and subjected to a peculiar mode of division. The day may be divided into ten parts; or reckoning by decades may be preferred to reckoning by weeks: but the year cannot be reduced into ten months; and even in its present division into twelve, it ill accords with the division of time fixed by nature. *M. Fleurieu* has himself thought it necessary to continue the division of the compass into thirty-two points.

In the circle, there is an immutable proportion established in its nature between the diameter and the circumference. The whole circumference is subtended by six chords, each of which is equal to the radius or semidiameter; and into whatever number of degrees, or parts, the circumference is divided, the measure of the one sixth part will be equal to the radius. This peculiar property of the circle seems to have marked the sexagesimal as its most natural division, and most probably occasioned that division to be originally adopted. In a decimal division of the circumference, the semidiameter must be a surd

quantity. Thus, according to *M. Fleurieu*'s new measure, the semi-diameter of the earth would be 66°.66′.66″.66‴, &c.

We shall not pronounce decisively on the merits or demerits of this plan: but we must declare our apprehensions that the new system, instead of being attended with sufficient advantage to compensate for the trouble (and we must add, the expence) of the change, would prove to be less convenient in practice than the present system founded on the sexagesimal division of the circle.

In a separate volume of this publication, are placed the charts, as well those which are connected with M. MARCHAND's voyage, as those which are intended to illustrate the various geographical dissertations. They are neatly executed; and graduated according to the method hitherto universally practised.

The part assigned to Natural History (vol. iv. and the greater portion of vol. v.) is a compilation, purposely selected, and adapted for the use of seamen; the nature of which will be more fully explained by transcribing a few of the author's introductory remarks:

'A knowlege of birds, fish, and other marine productions, ought to be included in the education of the seaman; for among the number some may be regarded as natural beacons, which serve to mark the distance from land, and sometimes in unknown seas to indicate the proximity of an island, of a reef, or of banks level with the water's edge, where otherwise they would not be suspected. Others offer to the navigator a valuable supply of fresh provisions in time of need. Others are useful in commerce: and all are interesting to the curiosity of man, from the variety of means which nature has provided for the maintenance and multiplication of those organized beings with which the air and the waters are peopled.

'It is serving, then, the double purpose of instructing the navigator, and satisfying his curiosity, to unite in the same sketch, the animals, the plants, and the other natural productions which so frequently present themselves to his notice in his voyages: but, in undertaking to describe the birds, the fish, and the other animals belonging to the ocean, which are destined in some measure to be the escort of navigators, I do not pretend to enter scientifically into all the minute particulars.—It will be sufficient for the seaman, to designate the exterior characters, general and particular, which serve to distinguish each genus and species; to notice the principal dimensions, the form, the predominant colour, the varieties, &c.; and to instruct him, by the experience of other navigators, in the sort of utility which may be derived from each animal, what climates they frequent, and in what seasons.

'In order that my plan may be methodical without being monotonous, I shall follow the *Solide* in her navigation round the globe, and shall treat of birds, fish, plants, &c. in the same order in which they occurred during the route.'

This

This method of arrangement gives too much the appearance of a miscellaneous collection.

In drawing up his descriptions, *M. Fleurieu* has consulted the voyagers of different nations, the *Encyclopédies*, Chambers's Dictionary, &c. The birds, amphibious animals, and the Whale, are copied from *Buffon*. 'My labour,' says he, 'has often been confined to transcribing, and to abridging, lest more might be extracted than would suffice for the purpose which I had in view.'—For the same reason, he has confined his descriptions to animal and vegetable productions.

This kind of abridged selection has been much wanted: particularly as seamen, to whom an acquaintance with many parts of Natural History is of material use, are discouraged by large works, and especially when the greater portion does not appear necessary to them.—On a similar account, perhaps this part of the present work would have been rendered of more general benefit, if it had been so modelled as to be independent of the other volumes.

The general character of this publication will appear from the detailed account which we have given: but we shall remark in addition, that the editor has indulged himself largely in fancy and conjecture; and that, consequently, his book abounds in new ideas. *Tant pis; tant mieux.* He has likewise given more discussion to matters of little moment than seems consistent with the importance of the work, or with the depth of knowlege with which other subjects are treated. We cannot join in the commendation bestowed by the members of the *Bureau des Longitudes* on their associate, 'that the most scrupulous impartiality has dictated his proposed nomenclature:' yet we are of opinion that his labours will rank highly among those which have improved the science of geography.

Capt. B....y

ART. IX. *Les Scandinaves; &c.* i. e. The Scandinavians, a Poem, translated from the Sueo-Gothic; and followed by Observations respecting the Manners and the Religion of the antient barbarous Nations of Europe. By JOSEPH CHERADE MONTBRON. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s. sewed.

RESPECTING the authenticity of the original of this poem, we are not rendered competent to form a decided opinion by any information which M. MONTBRON has afforded. He states that he has translated it from the Latin version of Resennius: but he has given no particulars concerning the probable date of its composition, and seems to have designedly left the question of its origin to be canvassed and investigated

by others, without condescending to throw any light on the subject. We, however, shall not enter into any critical examination of its pretensions to antiquity, because the data on which we have to proceed are few, and the importance which we attach to the decision is trifling. If, however, we may hazard an opinion on internal evidence, we shall be inclined to think that it is the production of a modern poet * rather than an antient bard; because there appears to be a studied allusion to every incident, and a pointed introduction of almost every custom, tenet of religion, trait of national character, and principle of government, which the relics of Scandinavian history and tradition contain. We meet with no passages accidentally refering to any thing which has escaped the notice of history. The work is in no instance the original source of information, relative to any exploded custom or obsolete law. Every peculiarity of manners, morals, laws, and government, to which it alludes, is studiously and cautiously sanctioned by existing records, and the acknowleged voice of tradition. From these features, we should infer that it was composed at a period in which the knowlege possessed by the author, respecting the state of society here delineated, must have been derived from the sources of history alone; and that it is, as it were, a structure erected not with materials drawn from the "living quarry," but from the scattered fragments of some antiquated ruin. We imagine, also, that we observe too little of that simplicity of thought and expression, which characterizes the early productions of northern poetry, to allow of a very early date being assigned to it; and in a variety of instances, we remark a refined turn of sentiment, an arrangement of ideas bordering on conceit, and a studied antithesis of expression, more consonant to the style of a cultivated epoch, than to the language of a ruder age.

The main fable of the work is the expulsion of Suenon king of Scandinavia, or Skone, from his dominions, by Buris king of the Vandals; with his consequent sufferings and exploits, and his final restoration. The outlines of the story are as follow:—Buris suddenly invades the territories of Suenon, assails him in his palace in the dead of the night, and compels him to seek his safety in flight. This unexpected aggression proceeded from the long-treasured-up animosity of Buris towards Suenon, for having formerly been his successful rival in glory and in love. During the life time of Othar, father of Buris, the latter was restrained from the indulgence of his hatred by the esteem and respect which Othar entertained for Suenon:—but,

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* The composition before us is in prose: but it is called a poem because, it is said, the original is in verse.

when

when the death of his father made way for the accession of Buris to the throne, the smothered flame burst forth, and the first act of his reign was the unexpected invasion of Scandinavia. Suenon, with his only daughter Alpais, after having encountered and escaped many difficulties and dangers, arrives in safety at the court of Harold Pulchricomus, or Haarfager, king of Norway; whose assistance the exiled monarch implores, and is promised. During their abode in the Norwegian palace, the beauty of Alpais excites the love of Harold and the jealousy of his queen. Harold offers marriage: but Suenon rejects the overtures, because the affections of his daughter are already fixed on Adelstan, the warlike son of Adelus, who was the friend of Suenon, and who, by the sacrifice of his own life, had saved that of his sovereign on the fatal night of Buris's invasion. The rejection of his overtures inflames the passion of Harold; and instigated by the counsels of his ministers, who were jealous of the influence of Suenon over their master, he resolves to take Alpais away by force: but Gidda, Harold's queen, desirous of freeing herself from a hated rival, proposes to Suenon, and contrives, the escape of Alpais from her confinement. The king of Skone and his daughter, after having passed through a variety of dangers to which they were exposed by the pursuit of Harold, arrive at last at Upsal, the capital of the Swedish monarchy; while Adelstan and Buthlus, with other Scandinavian chiefs, who had accompanied Suenon in his flight from Norway, had previously separated, in order to excite the people of Skone to assist in the restoration of their king.

Fresh dangers await the unfortunate monarch on his arrival at Upsal: a terrible insurrection rages there; and Suenon, assisting Olaus in attempting to quell it, is taken prisoner. He is on the point of being sacrificed as an atonement to the gods of the country, when the voice of Odin, sounding from his statue, saves him from destruction, and points out Olaus as the proper victim; who, from having become a convert to Christianity, had drawn on himself the hatred and rancour of the priesthood. After the murder of Olaus, Suenon contrives to escape from his confinement; and by means of Idallan, one of the Swedish Generals, he establishes the son of Olaus on his father's throne. In the mean time, Adelstan and his companions succeed in exciting the whole of Scandinavia to revolt; and Harold, jealous of the progress of Buris, marches against him to drive him from the conquered territories of Gotha and Skone.

After various fluctuations of success, in which the little army of Suenon alternately encounters the Norwegians and the Vandals; Alpais quits her father's tent by night, and seeks

that

that of Harold; resolved to save her father's empire, and his subjects, by sacrificing herself as the wife of Harold. The Norwegian king receives her with joy, and binds himself by a solemn oath at the altar to restore Suenon to his kingdom: when, at the same time that he receives the hand of Alpais, she plunges a poignard in her breast. The wound, however, proves not to be mortal. Harold respects his oath; and finding the affections of Alpais unalterably fixed on Adelstan, he reluctantly absolves her from her marriage vows. Harold and Suenon then join their forces against the Vandals: the latter are completely routed; and Buris falls by the hand of Suenon, who thus regains possession of the throne of his ancestors.

Such are the outlines of the principal story, which is interspersed with episodes founded on some incidents in Scandinavian history.

The marvellous agency of the poem is excluded by the French translator, from an opinion that none but the gods of Olympus are worthy to be the gods of poetry. In one instance only has he admitted the appearance of a divine machine; viz. that in which Odin interferes to save Suenon from the fury of the priesthood. We think, however, that there are other conjunctures, in which the interposition of a deity might have been allowed with as much propriety and judgment as in this; since the atchievements of the heroes would not disgrace the most dignified warriors of Homer and Virgil, nor the most gallant of the knights of Ariosto and Tasso. The exploits which they perform, the difficulties which they overcome, and the dangers which they escape, sometimes seem to require the intervention of a god, or an enchanter, to give them the air of probability. If the translator had admitted a little more of the marvellous, the work would have contained rather less of the extravagant.

Most of the similies are judiciously taken from the objects and appearances belonging to a northern climate; and indeed a sombre hue, and a melancholy tint, almost peculiar to northern poetry, pervade the whole composition. In many instances, the order of time has been violated:—but, when a poem relates to events of antiquity, anachronisms are venial. The imagination loses, as it were, the intervals between remote events, as the eye perceives not the space between the distant objects of a long visto.

The copious and numerous notes at the end of the volumes will be found entertaining; since they contain an account of the principal circumstances relative to the religion, manners, and customs, of the antient people of the north.

O. Wood. ART.

ART. X. *Des Tombeaux*, &c. i. e. On Tombs; or, On the Influence of Funeral Institutions over Manners and Morals. By J. GIRARD. 12mo. pp. 192. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2s. 6d. sewed.

IN a country in which every salutary principle of religion has been ridiculed and vilified, and in which, at one period, the doctrine that death was an eternal sleep constituted the main article of the popular creed, it is not surprizing that the religious ceremonies belonging to the burial of the dead should have been slighted and despised; and that a most disgusting indifference and carelessness should have attended the whole process of consigning the body to the grave. That this was the case in France, we learn from the present publication:—but, when the rigour of infidel intolerance abated, the service was conducted with somewhat more propriety and decorum. The National Institute gave the first example of that respect for the dead which is so congenial to human feelings, by attending the funereal procession of Citizen *Desvailly*. At the same time, it invited all citizens to communicate their ideas relative to funeral ceremonies and places of sepulture. In consequence, the production before us was one of the essays which were delivered; and we are told that it received very flattering marks of approbation from the society, though it did not intitle its author to the prize.

In the introduction, the writer describes, with a considerable degree of pathos and eloquence, the feelings which are excited by the death of those who were dear to us. He derives, from the excess of sorrow on such an occasion, the consoling idea of the immortality of the soul, and the origin of funereal worship, of apotheoses, and of that religious respect which all people have entertained for the deceased. He then points out the dangers to be avoided in the establishment of sepulchral institutions; which dangers are, superstition on the one hand, and the tenet of materialism, or annihilation, on the other; and he dwells with great earnestness of language, on the folly, absurdity, and fatal effects of the latter doctrine.

It should seem, from this publication, that atheistical philosophy, after having weakened, if not altogether destroyed, the influence of religion, and having witnessed the lamentable issue of its own success in the extreme depravity and corruption of morals, was at last convinced of the necessity of something besides the force of law, and the controul of civil government, to maintain the harmony of society: but that, too proud to acknowlege the fitness of religion for this end, it was desirous of establishing some principle in its room; of converting the pro-

pensity of the French for pomp, parade, and show, into a succedaneum for devout feelings; and of instituting decadal festivals, civic liturgies, and municipal masses, in the room of the catholic ceremonies.

In the first chapter, M. GIRARD proposes that the death of every citizen should be announced in the municipal assemblies in each decade, and his name inscribed in the register:—that proper officers should be chosen from those who were most distinguished for their morals and fortune, to regulate the funereal institutions, to watch over the decorum of the processions, to pronounce the eulogia of the dead, and to fulfil towards them the last duties, in the name of the social body to which they belonged;—and, in order to avoid any accident from a too hasty interment, to intrust the medical person, who attended the deceased, with the power of fixing the time of burial: uniting with him proper individuals, whose office it should be to visit the dead, and to make a report of all circumstances. He proposes, also, that the house of the deceased should be open and free of access: that a black cloth should be hung at the door; and that, if the poverty of the defunct, or the situation of his residence, should prevent this public exhibition, he should be carried to a place of deposit set apart for that purpose;—leaving it, however, entirely to the option of the family whether he shall be so removed or not.

In the 2d chapter, he suggests the plan of a procession; which we should feel more disposed to recommend to the ballet-master of an opera-house, than to a legislature.

Chap. 3d enumerates the various methods employed by different nations, for disposing of the bodies of the dead; and recommends that every commune should have a place of public sepulture, at a distance from any habitations: the choice of which should be made according to the report of medical men, who are to examine the nature and disposition of the soil, and the usual currents of air; preference being always given to solitary places, sheltered by rising grounds, and watered by streams, to encourage a vegetation capable of absorbing all noxious vapours. M. GIRARD advises to surround the place of burial with a wall, or ditch, in order to protect it from injury and insult; and with thick trees, to conceal it from observation.—To shew with what reverence the French at present treat their places of sepulture, we are informed, in a note, that over the gateway of the burying-ground belonging to the church of St. Sulpice in Paris, this Latin inscription has been placed: "*Has ultra metas requiescunt beatam spem expectantes;*" that immediately above are the following words, in transparent rose color, "*Bal des Zephyrs;*" and that every evening,

evening, music and dancing take place among the tombs.—In the subsequent part of this chapter, after having objected to the plan of a pantheon as a place of deposit for the remains of great men, the author recommends that the legislature shall erect the monuments of such characters in private places, near the scenes of their exertion and activity.

The last chapter relates to funereal festivals, mourning dresses, and monumental records. In the establishment of funereal festivals, the author proposes the adoption of two ceremonies belonging to the catholic worship: but, in compliance with the spirit which prevails in France, they are to be stripped of every religious form and appendage, and to be transferred from the hand and presidency of the priesthood to those of the civil power.

O. Wood.

ART. XI. *Promenade d'un Français en Suède et en Norvège.—i. e.* The Rambles of a Frenchman in Sweden and Norway. By De LATOCNAYE. 8vo. 2 Vols. Brunswick. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 10s. sewed.

RECOLLECTING the pleasure which we have formerly received from accompanying this lively Emigrant Officer in his *Promenades* *, we took up the present volumes with the expectation of being agreeably amused, and we have not been in any degree disappointed. M. DE LATOCNAYE not only rambles with his eyes open, but with his whole soul *on the alert*; he relates occurrences with intelligence and sprightliness; and, in a manner truly French, he diffuses a pleasantry over the whole of his narrative. War having so disturbed and desolated the fairest regions of Europe as to make travelling in them uncomfortable and dangerous, M. DE L. turned his steps towards Sweden and Norway, which were then far removed from the theatre of destruction. Warned by rumours and symptoms of rebellion, he quitted Ireland, (which was the last scene of his peregrinations,) not wishing to involve himself in its troubles; and in his way to those northern kingdoms which he meditated to explore, he visited for a third time his friends in Scotland: which country he takes every opportunity of designating by its native appellation of the *Land of Cakes.* With all his partiality for this part of our island, however, he could not, as a Catholic, relish the prayer offered by the Clergy of the Scotch Church, for the total destruction of

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xvii. p. 521. vol. xxiii. p. 587. vol. xxvi. p. 208. and vol. xxxi. p. 445. New editions of these works have been printed.

Popery; which, with ironical italics, he calls *charitable*:—but, if he smiles at the zeal of the Kirk against the *scarlet whore of Babylon*, he gratefully notices the hospitable and flattering reception which he experienced in that country.

A fleet sailing for the Baltic under convoy of two ships of war, M. DE L. took his passage on board a merchantman bound for Gothenburg; where he arrives without accident, and with the description of which town his *promenade* commences.

'Immediately (says he) on passing the fort of Elfsburg, the eye is particularly attracted by the banks of the river; on which a number of wooden houses, painted red, and scattered up and down on rocks of granite, indicate considerable industry. The effect produced at the entrance of the river Götha brought to my recollection those Chinese paintings, in which we see at once houses built on large rocks and among trees, vessels gliding along, and fat old fellows smoking their pipes with all imaginable tranquillity and gravity!

'The town is very well built, and partakes of the taste of its first founders, the Dutch, in being every where intersected by canals. Excepting the new quarter, and some buildings on the quay, all the houses are of wood; and though we generally form very poor ideas of such dwellings, these are very commodious, and warmer in winter than those which are built with stone. Their construction is very simple, being formed with squared fir trees placed one on the other, pinned together, and the interstices filled with moss; the outside is covered with planks painted red or white, and the inside with plaster. The country people thatch the roof with the bark of the birch tree, over which they lay turf; while persons of property employ tile or slate; and these modes are prevalent through all Sweden and Norway. Such houses appear to me to be more convenient for the common people than those of stone, brick, or earth; because they are more easily built, are more warm, and can be removed from place to place without much difficulty.

'The commerce of Gothenburg, which is extensive, is carried on by many respectable merchants, the principal of whom is Mr. Hall. To this gentleman, strangers are generally recommended, and are much indebted for his politeness and hospitality. Many Scotch houses are established here, and are very flourishing. The manufactures of the country are few, but excellent of their kind: sugar, for instance, is better refined in Sweden than any where else, but it is dear. Near the coast is a glass-house, the manufacture of which is very beautiful:—but the merchants of Gothenburg, and throughout Sweden, are principally engaged in the exportation of metals, chiefly iron; which is a very productive commerce.

'Herrings visit the coast towards the month of November, in such shoals that boats pass through them with difficulty; and if an oar be put into the sea, it will stand as upright among them as if it were stuck in the sand. This trade is considered as so important, that every precaution is taken to prevent the fish from being frightened from the coast; and as soon as they appear, it is expressly forbidden to fire any cannon, even for the usual salutes. In a good year,

year, 600,000 barrels of salted herrings are sold, and 30,000 barrels of oil.

'Nearly all the articles of importation, which are considerable, come from England, and sell very well. Indeed, the communication between the two countries is such, that most people of condition in Gothenburg have even their shoes from London, or from some other town of Great Britain. The stuffs and leather which are brought thence are not only of a superior quality, but cheaper than the manufactures of the country.'

These circumstances may serve to account for the late reluctance of Sweden to break the bonds of amity with Great Britain; and they are flattering testimonies in favour of our manufactures and commercial exertions.

M. DE L. is happy not only in finding that Sweden, as well as Scotland, is *the Land of Cakes*, but in observing a resemblance between the people of the two kingdoms; especially in their languages, which have many words in common. As he advances into the country, he notices with satisfaction the comfortable state of the peasantry, who are tolerably clothed, and the inside of whose cottages are clean.—Before he quits the town of Gothenburg, where Miss Wollstonecraft landed in her visit to these Northern states, and who published an account of them in *Letters written during a short residence in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark**, he offers strictures on this lady's book of travels, and glances his ridicule on her *Rights of Woman*. Though he allows that her letters contain many facts, he charges them with much exaggeration; and with scandalizing the Swedes as *generally addicted to drunkenness*, when on the whole they are remarkable for their sobriety. We take it for granted that his opportunities of ascertaining the customs and manners of the people were superior to those of Miss W. and that his picture of them must therefore be more correct. He states, with that Lady, that the Swedes are great eaters; and also that it is their custom, before they sit down to table, to take a glass of brandy, which they call *Sup*, in order to create an appetite: which *sup* is followed by a short prayer, similar (we suppose) to our *grace*; but he says that, during and after dinner, little wine is taken. 'When (he observes) a person receives an invitation to dinner, he finds the table splendidly covered, but he gets nothing to drink. Often, at the entertainments of the rich, one bottle is placed near the master of the house, which he keeps in that position, and suffers the glass to stand by it as if it contained liquid gold.' In order to ridicule the extreme sobriety of the Swedes, he humorously remarks, on

* See M. Rev. vol. xx. p. 251, N. S.

seeing at Gripsholm a silver statue representing Gustavus Adolphus, with a large glass in his hand, that, if Gustavus were to appear at Stockholm with this large glass, he would find scarcely any thing to fill it, except the water of the lake Mäler, or small beer.

From Gothenburg, M. DE LATOCNAYE proceeded to the wonderful cascade and canal of *Trolhata*, and to the rocks of *Halleberg* and *Hunneberg*. The summit of the latter commands the great Lake *Wener*, at the extremity of which stands the town of Wenersburg, situated like Geneva; where the water of the lake discharges itself, and forms a river resembling the Rhône not merely in the cascade of Trolhata, but also in losing itself during part of its course in subterraneous cavities, or among porous strata.

At p. 50. he mentions some curious circumstances respecting another great Swedish lake, viz. the *Wetter*, which, in one particular, resemble also what has been related concerning the lake of Geneva, though others are peculiar to itself:

'Being at Jönköping, situated at the head of the lake, I saw the waters agitated by a violent tempest and the waves running high, though the weather was serene, and the little lakes in its vicinity were tranquil and unruffled: even those, which were separated from it only by the small tongue of land on which the town is built, remained in the most perfect calm. This suddeu agitation of the lake is usually attributed to subterraneous wind attempting to make its escape.

'When, in the winter, the water of this lake is frozen to a thickness sufficient to permit carriages to pass on it, the same subterraneous wind, which in summer excites tempests, breaks the ice on a sudden, and endangers the lives of those who are upon it. It happens sometimes that the ice melts all at once, and also disappears. The inhabitants, however, have fortunately remarked that these tempests are preceded by a subterraneous noise, which gives them sufficient warning to retire.'

This lake is of great depth: in some places, it is said, soundings cannot be obtained; and the water is singularly transparent. The author properly laughs at an idea entertained by some fanciful persons, that this lake has a subterraneous communication with that of Constance.

Wonders being once made the *order of the day*, it is difficult to know where to stop; and travellers fill up their own observations with the tales told by the inhabitants. We are here informed that, some miles to the south of Grenna, in the parish of Marbäck, is an island called *Röd-holman* (the red island) in the lake Ralôngen, which sometimes rises to the surface of the water, and at others keeps at the bottom; and the periods at which this whimsical island has made its appearance are enumerated.

merated. The last time of its coming to the surface was on the 10th of August, and it remained floating till the 9th of November, when it plunged to the bottom. Believers in the existence of the *Kraken* will perhaps doubt whether this be an island, and will suppose it to be one of these vast aquatic animals.

Proceeding from *Grenna*, the traveller visited *Wadstena;* the much frequented mineral waters of *Medewi; Skeninge*, the antient capital of Ostrogothland; *Linköping*, where he observed the only specimen of Gothic architecture (as it is called) in the land of the Goths; *Norköping*, which is the third town of Sweden; the forges of *Finspang*, which are compared to the works of the Carron Company in Scotland; *Soder-Telge;*— and at last, after having traversed woods, rocks, and lakes, he reached *Stockholm*, the capital. He describes this city as very romantically situated, at the junction of the lake Mäler with the Baltic, and as built on a number of little isles of rock and gravel, which are conveniently united by bridges. In a better climate, this situation, M. DE L. observes, would be inestimable: but even as it is, these circumstances render it truly superb and *unique*. He notices, in detail, the King's Palace, the Library, the Museum, the Arsenal, &c.: but he is too sprightly to stoop to the dull task of copying the catalogues of their contents. In mentioning the Opera-house, he comments on the miserable state of the drama in Sweden; which he represents as far behind England in this particular. He thinks that *we* have been prevented from attaining *perfection* in the dramatic art, by having adhered too closely to Shakspeare as a model; who, though possessing (he is good enough to allow) a most superior genius, followed no rule, and flourished at a period in which the arts and sciences were in their infancy. He has been imitated, says this writer, with success in the irregularity of his pieces, but not in those beautiful passages which could only be the fruit of his own genius.—This we believe to be exactly the idea of the French in general, respecting the English stage.

Having travelled in England, M. DE L. is perpetually contrasting the Swedish manners with our own. To exemplify the *froideur* of the Swedish character, he relates the manner in which the King and Queen are received at the Opera, where they enter without the smallest acclamation; and he says that they come in and bow to the audience, but that the latter make no compliment in return. 'What (he then adds) would the *Good King of England* say if his phlegmatic subjects were to receive him in this manner?'—This loyal traveller is not less disgusted with the custom of the men kissing each other when

they meet, not only on the ear or cheek, but even on the lips. The women also kiss each other: but this is not so displeasing as to see men kissing men. To these customs, however, we must not attach the idea of effeminacy, for M. DE L. describes the Swedes as a fine race of men; and he says that the women often possess such figure, beauty, and grace as render them truly *séduisantes*, and are rarely to be seen in any other country.

In the account of *Drotningholm*, near Stockholm, where the King has a fine palace ornamented with busts and statues, of which Gustavus Adolphus plundered Germany, the traveller introduces a humorous description of a Swedish marriage; in which it is the custom for the Priest, who performs the ceremony, to dance at the ball with the bride.

Speaking of the four orders in the State, viz. the Nobles, the Clergy, the Citizens, and the Peasants, the author observes that, of all the governments established on earth, that of Sweden is the only one which has called this last class to sit in the Assembly of the Nation. As a French Royalist, he does not much admire this part of the Swedish constitution: for, though he allows that the interest of the lower classes ought to be consulted, he denies their right to intermeddle with public affairs.—Notwithstanding all the privileges of the nobles, they are represented as the most discontented set of people in Sweden.

Resolving to be present at the great fair at *Oerebro*, M. DE LATOCNAYE makes the tour of the *Mäler* lake, crosses it on the ice, (which, he observes, is so very transparent that he seemed, while travelling over it, to be playing the part of St. Peter,) and examines the forges and manufactures of steel at *Eschilstuna*. As these vulcanian operations are well known, we shall not transcribe the description here given of the process of converting iron into steel; only observing that the quantity of wood, employed in the operation in Sweden, gives the steel a superior quality.—The pleasures of a large fair may be easily guessed by our readers. At a Swedish fair, *dancing* and *smoking* are in full activity.

When M. DE L. commenced his promenade to the country of mines, (Jan. 20, 1800) he found the weather so tormentingly cold that he wonders not that the antient Goths and Scandinavians placed their hell in the ice. Hence he speaks of *un froid d'enfer*, in which he was afraid of blowing his nose, lest he should leave it in his pocket-handkerchief: the thermometer then standing only 4 degrees above the point at which quicksilver freezes. A journey under such circumstances must furnish details of personal inconveniencies, rather than instruc-

tive information respecting the country. Wrapped up in furs and other coverings, in a sledge drawn over the snow, the traveller sees little, and has nothing to relate except his own feelings, and the constant danger of his being frozen to death.

Availing himself of his visit to the University of *Upsal*, this entertaining rambler sate down to study the history of the countries which he is exploring; and though he seeks no academic honours, he exhibits himself in the character of a professor, by learnedly disserting "On the antient religion of Thor, and on the Manners, History, and Language of the antient people of these countries." We must pass over these episodical discussions, though they manifest ingenuity, and would be entertaining to the antiquary.

Leaving *Upsal*, the traveller visited *Sigtuna*, the antient capital, and then returned to *Stockholm*. Having obtained letters of recommendation from the Archbishop of *Upsal*, he now prepared to explore the distant governments, during the summer. He observes that, in consequence of his general letters to the clergy, his journey was like an episcopal visitation: only with this difference, that he saw men as they really were, while bishops see them only as they ought to be. This summer excursion commenced on the 21st of May. He now rambles with comfort; the nights are *superb;* and the morn is enlivened by the song of the lark. He pays a second visit to Sir Alexander Seton, recommends his farm to the attention of travellers, describes a substitute for bread which the Swedes in times of scarcity make from the root of the chicory, and mentions a wild anemony, the flowers of which are used by the Swedes instead of cantharides.

The silver mine of *Sala*, with M. DE L.'s descent into it in a bucket, to the depth of 600 feet, is pleasingly described: but the iron mine at *Dannemora* is pointed out as the true Potosi of Sweden. This mine, whence comes the best iron in Europe, consists of enormous rocks, which seem to be entirely of iron, and which require only to be broken in order to obtain the mineral. A prodigious excavation, more than 2000 feet in circumference, and at the depth of 800 feet, has been made. A description then follows of the copper mines (900 feet deep) and the foundery at *Falun:* which, with an account of the customs of the Dalecarlian peasants, we must pass over.

The last chapter of the first volume gives an account of the great valley of Dalecarlia; of the number, dialect, and prejudices of the inhabitants; of the manufacture of porphyry at *El-dal*; of the four great villages; and of *Mora*. At some distance from this last village, is the cave in which Gustavus Vasa was obliged to hide himself:—this spot a French Emigrant

grant could not visit without serious thoughts; and, accordingly, the first volume of these Northern rambles concludes with some political reflections and deductions.

The greater part of Volume II is devoted to a description of rambles in Norway: but we must dismiss it with more brevity than we have yet observed; not because it is less amusing, but because our limits are confined.—If M. DE L. complains, in the month of January, of the extreme rigor of a Swedish winter, he now, in the month of June, feels himself incommoded by excessive heat: but he enjoys the mornings and evenings of what he terms the *day-nights*, which exist during the summer months in these regions, so near to the polar circle. He visits *Medelpad*, *Jämptland*, &c. and then passes into Norway; explores *Drontheim*, *Bergen*, *Christiania*, &c. crosses the *Sound* to Denmark; and after having examined its capital *Copenhagen*, &c. he returns to *Stockholm*. In this route he traverses a great extent of country, the general features of which are formed by woods of pine *; encounters various adventures; and makes many judicious and sprightly reflections. Considering himself as a citizen of the world, he consults the benefit of the countries through which he travels, and is continually suggesting improvements not unworthy of the attention of the inhabitants.

M. DE L.'s account of the situation of the Norwegian women must form our only extract from this volume:

'Society here cannot be very agreeable: for the women, throughout all Norway, except at *Drontheim* and at *Christiania*, are banished from it. Their cares are confined to domestic employments, and to the superintendance of their household concerns. They wait at table, and serve the plates, the liquor, &c. They rarely make visits, but remain almost always at home, where they seldom enter into conversation. The fine ladies of Paris and of London will here perhaps exclaim with indignation: but let me not displease them, if I add that a little tour in this country would not do *them much harm*.—The coffee and tea-table may be said to be the throne of the women: but even there the men accompany them with their pipes, and envelope them in smoke. Notwithstanding all this, they appear to be satisfied. Without doubt, the women of any other country would feel themselves much humbled in a parallel situation: but let them reflect that the insulated state of the towns in Norway precludes all the advantages of polite education, for the females; and that the men, on the contrary, quit the country in their infancy, and go to serve in foreign counting houses, where they learn languages and acquire instruction. In their eyes, consequently, a woman brought up on an insulated rock can be no very desirable society: nor can she be supposed to possess those

* '*Des bois, des bois, et toujours des bois; il y en a tant, que je suis persuadé qu'il y auroit de quoi en fatiguer un Ecossois même.*'

seducing

seducing manners, which make the society of the ladies so cherished and cultivated as it is in more populous countries.'

We congratulate M. DE LATOCNAYE on having returned to his native land, quietly to travel henceforwards by his own fire-side; where he promises to recollect, with gratitude, the kindness and civilities which he experienced from foreigners during his rambles.

As we shall probably meet this traveller again in an English dress, we may have a farther opportunity of paying our respects to him.

Mo-y.

ART. XII. *Mémoires de l'Institut National, &c. i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences at Paris. Vol. II.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix*, p. 470—483.]

WE have already presented to our readers an account of the papers contained in two of the three divisions of this volume, and are now to attend to the remaining part, which relates to the

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHYSICAL SCIENCES,

and which of itself forms a volume of above 500 pages.

The *History* of the Class opens with a chapter on *Astronomy*. By a comparison of the observations of the Chaldeans with those of modern times, *Mayer*, Dunthorne, and other astronomers confirmed the remark of Halley that there was an acceleration in the moon's mean motion. This fact received additional support from the observations of three eclipses made at Cairo in the tenth century, by Ibn Junis; and hence these three eclipses became matter of great interest to astronomers. The manuscript, from which the account of them had been extracted, being now in the national library at Paris, M. *Causin* (Professor of Arabic) has given a translation of it; and to the three eclipses already known he has added five-and-twenty more, which farther confirm the fact of the acceleration of the mean motion, and shew the extraordinary coincidence of theory and observation. The theory, viz. the explanation of the acceleration of the mean motion, and of the secular inequality of the apogee and nodes, is due to M. *de la Place*. This sublime geometrician had the honour of solving that which baffled the most able calculators, and of thus putting (if we may so express ourselves) a finishing hand to the system of Newton.

In the report before us, are given the twenty-eight eclipses, the observations of the equinoxes, the solstice, the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the elements of the tables of the Sun and Moon of Ibn Junis, hitherto unpublished.

Analysis.

Analysis.—Report of M. M. Le Gendre and La Grange on two Memoirs of Analysis, by Professor *Burmann.*——The report of these two mathematicians is confined to the second memoir of Prof. *Burmann;* which, in the estimation of its author, is the most valuable. The theorem of Taylor was, if X be any function of x, and X°, X^{1}, X^{11}, X^{111}, &c. be what X $\frac{dX}{dx}$, $\frac{d^2X}{dx^2}$, &c. respectively become when $x=o$, then $X=X^{\circ}$ $+\frac{xX^{1}}{1.}+\frac{x^2}{1.2}X^{11}+\frac{x^3}{1.2.3}X^{111}+$ &c.

M. *Burmann* has generalized this formula in some degree; and he finds that

$$X=X^{\circ}+\frac{\xi X^{1}}{1}+\frac{\xi^2}{1.2}X^{11}+\text{ &c.}$$

X^n being $=\frac{d^nX}{d\xi^n}$, and ξ being a given function of x.

He next presents a second formula; which, however, does not differ essentially from one suggested by *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs for 1769, and which may easily be derived from that of *La Place* in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1777.

Several other formulæ are given by the Professor, which the learned Reporters announce as either entirely new or under a new form; and accordingly they adjudge that the memoir is worthy of being printed in the volumes of the *Savans Etrangers.*

Physics.—Report on the Project of a Metalic Thermometer, presented by M. Regnier.——This thermometer consists of two blades of copper, curved in such a manner that their concavities are turned to each other. When the metal expands, its effect is sensibly shewn in the variation of the distance between the vertices of the bent blades; and some machinery, with an index, marks the increase and decrease of contraction.

Report on the Measure of the Meridian of France, and on the Results which have been deduced to determine the Bases of a new Metrical System.——This is a curious and important paper, respecting means which have been employed to carry into execution a great and magnificent project of the Academy of Sciences; viz. that of determining the unity of measure by some natural and unalterable standard, and of constructing a system of weights and measures on a plan at once regular and easy. To this object, the views of the Academy had been long directed; the theory and experiments of *Huygens* on the simple pendulum first suggested the idea of an unnalterable measure; and

and among the plans proposed, the length of the pendulum vibrating seconds was thought to offer a natural and ascertainable unity:—but the variation of expansion in the pendulum, and especially the difficulty of determining the exact distance between the point of suspension, caused this plan to be rejected. At length, the fourth part of the terrestrial meridian, the distance between the equator and the north pole, was chosen as the base of the metrical system; and the ten millionth part of the distance was taken as the unity of measures. This unity the French call *metre*, which term is equally applied to the measure of surfaces and those of solid contents; taking for the unity of the former the square of ten times the linear metre, and for that of contents the cube of the tenth part of the metre.—For an unity of weight, the quantity of distilled water contained in the above-mentioned cube was taken; and the multiples or parts of every kind of measure were to proceed according to the decimal notation.

Previously to the time of Newton, the arc of the meridian comprehended between Dunkirk and Perpignan had been measured; and from this mensuration, the fourth of the terrestrial meridian had been computed. In order to be assured of the real length of this meridian, the Academy proposed a new mensuration of the meridian traversing France, which was to commence from the Frontiers, and to be extended to Barcelona. This proposal was adopted by the National Assembly; and they committed the execution of the plan to M. M. *Mechain*, *Delambre*, and *Lefevre Gineau*: the two former were to be employed solely in measuring the distance; while the researches of the latter were to be confined to the determination of the unity of weight.

The present report contains an account of the methods employed in the mensuration of the meridional arc, of the instruments, of the precautions, corrections, &c. and of the fatigues and difficulties with which the operation was accompanied. The account is very interesting and instructive; and it will convince those who may be inclined to perceive merit only in the mere theoretical project of the mensuration, that its actual execution required no ordinary talents, but was something beyond a business of mechanical dexterity and systematic drudgery.

so far
R. Wood.

Chemistry.—Report of the Results of some Experiments made by M. Clouet relative to iron in different States, and to the Conversion of Iron into cast Steel.——M. M. *Guyton* and *Darcet*, to whom the composition of this Report was intrusted, very truly observe that scarcely more than twelve years have elapsed since the

the composition of steel, consisting of iron and carbon, was discovered by *Vandermonde*, *Berthollet*, and *Monge*, as stated under the article *Acier* in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*.—M. *Clouet* finds that one thirty-second of carbon added to the iron is sufficient to compound steel; that one-sixth of carbon renders the steel more fusible, while it is still malleable: but that, with a greater proportion of carbon, the compound approximates to cast iron. With still more carbon, the fusibility of the iron is increased; and by again augmenting the carbon, it becomes mere grey cast iron. His grand discovery, however, is supposed to be that, *at a high temperature, iron has so great an affinity for carbon as to take it from oxygen; and hence it decompounds carbonic acid.* The experiment designed to prove this decomposition must be related. Put into a crucible, iron cut into small pieces, with a mixture of equal parts of chalk and clay; expose it to a fire of temperature sufficient to weld iron; keep up that fire for an hour; and the melted mass will be found to be cast steel. On the ground of this result, M. *Clouet* proceeds to explain the manufacture of iron and of steel. He shews that oxide of iron and carbon afford soft iron, cast steel, white cast iron, and grey cast iron, according to their proportions to one another; as was the case with cast iron and oxide of iron,—with cast and forged iron,—with oxide of iron and forged iron,—and with oxide of iron and steel, according to their proportion. It requires but a fifth of cast iron to render iron into steel; and a sixth of oxide of iron brings back steel to the state of soft iron.—Thus it appears that steel, equal to Huntsman's and Marshall's celebrated manufacture, may be fabricated without the air of carbon, by means of carbonic acid, or of cast iron.

We have often heard of these curious experiments of M. *Clouet*; the result of which is very different in the case of the decomposition of carbonic acid by iron, which is altogether contrary to the supposed established order of elective attractions;—and we shall be desirous of learning whether the experiments are confirmed by our countrymen, some of whom (to our knowlege) have already repeated them without success.

Report concerning some newly invented Crayons.——The inventor of these crayons is M. *Conté*, who has been induced to attempt the discovery in consequence of the difficulty of obtaining crayons from England and Germany during the present war. The composition, we are told, is quite new; and the paste, of which the crayons are made, imitates and even surpasses native plumbago. A particular description could not be given to the Institute, without prejudice to the interests of M. *Conté*, which imperiously demand secrecy.

Medicine

Medicine and Surgery.—An Examination of the Stomach of a Person who was poisoned by Opium. By *Peter Lassus.*——A melancholy female swallowed 36 grains of opium, which in a few hours produced symptoms of apoplexy. Ipecacuanha could not make her vomit, and she died in the course of 10 or 11 hours. On dissection, the stomach was found inflamed, but without erosion. The intestines were filled with gas, and were also inflamed: but no other morbid appearance was found, except three calculi in the gall bladder, which had never produced any symptoms.

Enumeration of the Patients who had been afflicted with Urinary Calculi, and have been received into the Hospital of Luneville.—— In forty years, 1629 patients have been admitted into this charity; of whom 1564 were males and 65 were females. Of this number, 147 died. By far the greater proportion of patients were between 4 and 8 years old. The youngest was one year, and the oldest 68 years of age.

Tumefaction of all the Bones of an Adult; communicated by M. Saucerotte.——Previously to the disease, the subject weighed 58 kilogrammes, and at a certain period he weighed 88 kilogrammes.

Report concerning the Vertigo which affects Post-Horses, and the Question, Whether or not it be contagious and epizootic?——This disorder is attributed, from dissection, to a derangement of the functions of the abdominal viscera, or to a slow and long continued indigestion; and it is concluded from facts that it is not a contagious but an epizootic disease.

Notices of the Life and Writings of M. Pelletier. By M. *Lassus.*——*Bertrand Pelletier* was born at Bayonne in 1764, and died at Paris at the age of 36 years. He was educated by his own father in pharmacy, and by *Darcet* in chemistry. He distinguished himself, when 25 years old, by his researches concerning the acid of arsenic. He also wrote on the artificial crystallization of sulphur, and of cinnabar—on phosphorus—on the crystallization of deliquescent salts—on oxygenated muriatic acid—and on æthers, particularly the muriatic and acetous. He gave various analyses, and made several experiments on metallic phosphures;—he likewise wrote on refining bell-metal to obtain the copper pure for money—on a blue pigment from copper—and published experiments on strontian.

Notices of the Life and Writings of M. Pierre Bayen.——The subject of this paper was born at Châlons in 1725. In 1749, he served under *Charas* in pharmacy. He gave analyses of the mineral waters of France; and he wrote memoirs on marbles, serpentine stones, porphyries, granites, jaspars, schists,

and iron spar. He doubted the existence of the phlogiston of Stahl; and by operating on mercurial precipitates, he found that what are called metallic oxides owe their state, when obtained by calcining metals, to the absorption of one of the constituent ingredients of atmospheric air.—This chemist also discovered the fulminating property of metals when mixed with a very little sulphur; and he shewed that tin was not necessarily contaminated by arsenic;—that what is used by potters contains copper and antimony, by which it is rendered hard;—zinc, by which it is whitened,—bismuth, by which it is rendered sonorous,—and lead, in order to diminish the price. He died aged 72 years.

PHYSICAL, MEDICAL, *and* CHEMICAL MEMOIRS.

On living and fossil Elephants. By M. CUVIER.——It appears from this paper that there exist at least *two* distinct species of elephants; differing in their native climate, in manners, and in structure. There are the *Elephas capensis, fronte convexâ, lamellis molarium rhomboidalibus;*—and the *Elephas indicus, fronte plano-concavâ, lamellis molarium arcuatis undatis.*

The unknown species in a fossil state are the *Elephas mammonteus, maxillâ obtusiore, lamellis molarium tenuibus rectis;* and the *Elephas Americanus, molaribus multi-cuspidibus, lamellis post detritionem quadri lobatis.* Five plates accompany this memoir.

Report on a Memoir by M. Martin, relative to the Culture of Spice Trees in French Guiana. By M. M. JUSSIEU and DESFONTAINES.——As this inquiry cannot be interesting to English readers, we shall only observe that, from the circumstances here stated, it appears that French Guiana is able to furnish the mother country with spices, and with a great variety of woods and plants of the most useful kind. The same observations apply to the subsequent paper, viz.

Memoir on the Introduction of several useful Plants into the French Colonies in America, particularly Guiana; and on the success or failure of the attempt to cultivate them. By LOUIS CLAUDE RICHARD.

Memoir on a Fracture of the Sternum. By. M. SABATIER.——This fatal accident was occasioned by a loaded carriage running over a person, by which the sternum and two false ribs of the left side were fractured. The dissection is given with accuracy; and a number of pathological observations are related, which our limits do not allow us to extract.

Observations on a Disease of Trees, and particularly of the Elm, (Ulmus campestris, Linn.) analogous to Ulceration. By M. VAUQUELIN.——Old trees are often attacked by a disease which may

may be called ulceration, and which begins in the bark and extends to the solid parts; producing a real caries, attended by effusions or discharges, till suppuration ensues. Sometimes, these ulcers heal, and leave excrescences like exostoses.

From experiments made on the diseased fluids above named, collected from elms, the result was that 4 ounces, 7 gros, 46 grains of the *white diseased bark* afforded 3 ounces, or 0,605 of vegetable matter; 5 gros, 36 grains, or 0,340 of carbonate of potash mixed with sulphate of potash; 2 gros, or 0,051 of carbonate of lime; and 10 grains, or 0,004 of carbonate of magnesia.—The *black diseased bark*, in quantity 4 ounces, 7 gros, 46 grains, yielded one ounce, 5 gros, 36 grains, or 51,536 grammes of carbonate of potash; which is proportional to 151,478 grammes obtained by the combustion of 50 pounds of the wood of this elm. This carbonate of potash contains a peculiar vegetable matter, analogous to mucus, being soluble in water, and indissoluble in spirit of wine: but it is precipitated from its solution in acids, which mucus is not.

It is a matter of great curiosity to know in what manner the potash, the lime, the magnesia, and the black matter, have been thus accumulated, in one diseased part of a vegetable.

Experiments on Detonation by Percussion. By M. M. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.——In 1786, *Berthollet* discovered the super-oxymuriate of potash; and this discovery, in its application to practice, produced fulmination, by which two persons fell victims at the manufactory of Essone, in October 1788. Its property of emitting sparks was known to *Lavoisier*, as well as that of inflammation on trituration with sulphur; and *Pelletier* found out its remarkable effects on sulphuric acid. In the present memoir, these properties are ascertained with more precision, and some new facts are related.

On a Motion which may be observed in the Spinal Marrow. By M. Portal.——M. M. *Lamure* and *Haller* have happily discovered by experiments on living animals, that the cause of the motion of the brain was the flowing of the blood to the brain during expiration; which flowing not taking place during inspiration, the brain is not then at all raised up. In fact, during the time of expiration, the trunks of the *venæ cavæ*, in the chest, are compressed; and the blood, which ought to flow into them in order to pass to the heart, not only does not pass there with the same facility as in inspiration, (during which that compression on the *venæ cavæ* does not prevail,) but it flows into the subclavian veins, which are distended as well as the jugular veins, and into the brain, which communicates with them: then the sinuses are distended with blood, while

the vertebral arteries and the numerous branches of the carotids in the brain continue to receive blood from the heart, and are thus much dilated;—and hence the swelling of the brain visible in infants, and in morbid openings of the cranium. M. PORTAL, however, now observes that the part of the spinal marrow, in which we sometimes easily see a canal communicating with the 4th ventricle of the brain, is equally susceptible of swelling during expiration. In the cases of *spina bifida*, this swelling is very manifest during expiration, and especially in violent breathing. A canal full of water has also been found in the spinal marrow, communicating with the ventricles of the brain; which were also full of water.

On the Properties of pure Baryt, and its Analogies with Strontian. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——The chemical world was first informed by M. *Berthollet*, how to procure the fixed alkalies pure by solution in alcohol. M. VAUQUELIN indicated the mode of obtaining baryt quite pure, by exposing nitrate of baryt in a porcelain vessel to the fire, so as to drive off the nitrous acid; when there remains behind the pure and most caustic baryt, of which cold water dissolves 0,04 of its weight, and boiling water dissolves its own weight. This earth so prepared, and strontian, are the only earths which have the property of crystallization. Oxalic acid precipitates baryt: but the precipitate re-dissolves, and crystallizes; which circumstance affords a method of separating baryt from lime, the oxalate of which is insoluble, even with excess of acid. Chiefly from the resemblance between baryt and strontian in solubility and crystallizability, it was supposed that these two earths were in reality not distinct species: but that carbonate of strontian and of baryt differed from one another in the proportion of carbonic acid, and in being differently crystallized.—We beg leave to remark that subsequent experiments have shewn decisive specific differences between these two earths; many of which, indeed, are pointed out in a subsequent memoir by these chemists, *On the Resemblance and the Difference of Strontian and Baryt;* namely, that muriate of baryt is not decompounded by pure alkalies, as muriate of strontian is; that muriate of strontian is decompounded by solution of baryt, &c.; and in short it appeared that strontian differs from baryt in a greater number of properties than those in which they agree.

Observations on the Nature and Treatment of Fevers which often prevail in France during the Autumn, and which are still very fatal in la Vendée. By M. PORTAL.——'The defenders of their country (says M. PORTAL) returned from La Vendée to Paris with a very violent fever, which killed most of them in a

very short time.' Disssections were instituted on several of the dead bodies, but no light was thus obtained respecting the nature of fever, since no peculiar morbid appearances were remarked. As little information was gained from the history of symptoms; and with regard to the treatment, also, nothing new occurred. Ipecacuanha-vomits, given early in the fever, were found very serviceable, and were repeated eight or ten times at the interval of a few days.

Observations on the Complication of the Small-Pox with Herpetic Eruptions, and on the Continuation of the Use of Mercurials during the Course of that Disease. By M. DESESSARTZ.—— This gentleman sets out with the erroneous statement, that the English physicians very generally exhibit mercurials in the natural and in the inoculated small-pox; while the French are too timid to use these remedies. He asserts that, if during the use of mercury the small-pox should occur, this disorder is then regular in its stages, and milder than it might have been expected to be. On the other hand, when the small-pox supervened to herpetic eruptions, in which sudorifics, heating remedies, and vesicatories, were used to support the variolus eruption, and to prevent the retro-cession of the other cutaneous affection, this treatment never failed to occasion a most violent small-pox; which was often fatal, or followed by a very tedious convalescent state.

On the accession of the variolous fever, it was observed that erysipelatous and herpetic eruptions disappeared, and re-appeared eight days after the desiccation of the small-pox, or at some short period after it.

The total disappearance (says the author) of the erysipelatous eruption in one case, and of the herpetic in three others, and their re-appearance, shew that the small-pox is not liable to be mixed with the humour which produces those cutaneous disorders; and consequently that, by inoculation, two diseases cannot be introduced.

When the small-pox supervenes in persons affected with *syphilis*, and who at the same time are taking mercury, the sores and discharges are very little altered; and the duration of the disease does not obviously vary, subsequently to the variola: but it was thought that the small-pox was milder than it otherwise would have been. It is important to know, that no danger is to be apprehended from the co-existence of the small-pox and syphilis.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that, if the author has no better evidence than the above-recited cases, no satisfactory practical conclusion can be drawn in favour of mercury in the small-pox: but he has promised farther details.

G. 2.

Memoir on the Use of Bouches à Feu in throwing Grenades in large Quantities. By M. MARESCOT.——The author of this paper is desirous of introducing a particular method of throwing grenades adopted in the allied armies, and in which he has found it difficult to instruct the French troops.

Experiments relative to the Circulation of the Sap in Trees. By M. COULOMB.——It is here conjectured, that the only circulation in trees is performed through parts near the central canal of the tree, and by an infinite number of horizontal medullary lines or rays.

Observations on the Bite of Mad Dogs inflicted on Men. By M. SABATIER.——This paper contains some cases in addition to those which the author has formerly related on the subject of these fatal accidents.

A soldier was bitten by a mad dog near the great angle of the right eye, and near the lips of the same side. In 42 days he died of hydrophobia; although the celebrated medicine of *Viroslay* had been exhibited, and mercurial frictions, bathing, purging, and bleeding, had been employed. On the most accurate dissection, nothing morbid was discovered; not even in the pharynx and œsophagus.

An officer bitten by a mad dog was taken ill three months afterward, and died hydrophobic. In his body, also, nothing morbid was discovered on dissection.

A third case was treated by applying to the wounded part the actual cautery, and the patient continued well.

Several other persons, bitten by a mad dog, used the Tonquin medicine, and sea-bathing, without any complaint supervening: but in one the hydrophobia came on, and proved fatal. On dissection, nothing morbid was found but a slight inflammation of the pharynx, œsophagus, and stomach.

Another officer, who had been bitten, was cauterized as before mentioned, and no complaint followed.

Other accounts are given of persons bitten who escaped, after having had the parts cut out, or cauterized.

Although these cases are in favour of the efficacy of the measures employed, it is proper to consider them as equivocal; since one person was bitten in twenty-five places by a dog without any subsequent disease, although another bitten by the same dog, in one place only, became hydrophobic and died.

Experiments on the two States of Phosphate of Lime, on the Analysis of Bone, and on the Preparation of Phosphorus. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——This is a very interesting paper, and merits more particular attention than our limits allow.

allow.—The difference between acid obtained from burning phosphorus, and acid from bones, is shewn not to depend merely on the latter retaining a small proportion of phosphate of lime. Solution of bone in muriatic acid, on spontaneous evaporation, deposits a white scaly matter, which is soluble in water, fusible into glass, scarcely soluble in alcohol, and readily soluble in water with the addition of any acid. On adding to the aqueous solution, volatile or fixed alkali, or lime water, a copious deposition of *earth of bone* or *phosphate of lime* takes place; and oxalic acid causes a precipitate of oxalate of lime: so that phosphoric acid remains in the fluid quite pure. This precipitate from muriatic acid is, then, *acidulous phosphate of lime.*

Phosphate of lime in bone cannot be completely decompounded by acids, any more than sulphate of potash by nitric acid, or various mineral neutral salts by tartarous acid.

Acidulous phosphate of lime in solution suffers no decomposition from the addition of sulphuric, nitric, muriatic, phosphoric, or even acetous acid.

Phosphate of lime, above mentioned, consists of 0,41 phosphoric air, and 0,59 of lime; and acidulous phosphate consists of 0,54 of acid, and 0,46 of lime. Hence, bone earth yields, by means of acids, only 0,24 of the 0,59 of lime which it contains; and 100 parts of earth of bone with sulphuric acid give, therefore, 0,76 acidulous phosphate of lime, which retain 0,59 of earth of bone, and 0,17 phosphoric acid for phosphorus with carbon. Hence, the acids not taking more than $0\left\{\frac{,24}{,40}\right.$ lime from any phosphate of lime, and there not being more than $0\left\{\frac{,17}{,40}\right.$ of phosphoric acid rendered free, it is evident that we cannot obtain (supposing no loss) one half the quantity of phosphorus contained in a given quantity of phosphate of lime; and therefore, instead of 0,16 of phosphorus in 0,41 of acid from 100 parts of phosphate of lime, or earth of bone, we only obtain 0,04 or 0,05, on account of the loss of one or two per cent. inevitable in waste. In course, we obtain not scarcely one fourth of the real quantity of phosphorus which exists in bone; to save expence, therefore, in making phosphorus, to 100 parts of earth of bone should be added 40 parts of concentrated sulphuric acid, or $\frac{2}{5}$ of the weight of earth of bone.

In order to decompound bone completely, compound affinities must be employed, or vegetable acids. Oxalic acid takes the lime away totally from acidulous earth of bone; and 100

parts of oxalate of lime contain 48 parts of lime. Hence, 100 parts of enamel of teeth were found to contain:

1. Lime, 43,3.
2. Phosphoric acid, 29,67.
3. Gelatin and water, 27,10.

A mode of obtaining the total quantity of phosphoric acid from bone, less expensive than by means of oxalic acid, is by adding nitrate or acetite of lead to the acidulous phosphate of lime, with 0,10 of phosphorus, instead of 0,5 in the old way. Hence it will be understood why vol-alkali, fixed caustic alkali, and lime, precipitate earth of bone from urine; and why acetite or nitrate of lead precipitates all its phosphoric acid, which decompounds not only phosphate of soda and of ammoniac, but of lime.

It is observed that *Rouelle* long ago discovered that the urine of horses does not contain phosphoric acid; and hence, from the combination of phosphoric acid with phosphate of lime, various diseases of the bones may be understood. From the abundance, also, of this acid in the fluids, various diseases may arise.

Chemical Considerations on the Effect of Mordants in dying Cotton Red. By M. CHAPTAL.——The beautiful red colour, called *Andrinople* red, is effected by means of a preparation of apparently a monstrously absurd farrago of ingredients, the colouring matter of which is madder; yet we know, from good authority, that at Manchester the most intelligent chemists have in vain tried to render the receipt more simple, and to employ more rational ingredients. The operations necessary to produce this colour cannot be performed in less than a month; there being employed successively soda, oil, gall nut, alumine, sumac, blood, gastric liquor, madder, soap, nitro-muriate of tin, &c.

A new attempt is made in the paper before us to reduce this complicated process to simple principles. Accordingly, the three principal mordants employed are *oil*, *gall nut*, and *alumine*, which are the most complicated that are known to be necessary in one process in dying.

Observations and Remarks on a Calf which remained in the Womb dead and untainted nearly 15 Months after the Time of calving. By M. HUZARD.——The calf died in the womb about the usual time of delivery; and the air being quite excluded it remained unputrified. Until the corpse changed its position in the womb, and while the cow was well fed, she grew fat, and was healthy. Similar cases have occurred, in which also the whole mass was absorbed, except the bones.

Observations

Observations on the Epigæa repens, Linn. with the Description of a new Genus. By M. VENTENAT.——For the details of this curious article, we must refer to the memoir itself.

Memoir on the Tables of Composition of Salts, and the Means of verifying the Proportions which they contain. By M. GUYTON. ——The determination of the quantities which enter into the formation of compound salts is one of the most important and difficult points of chemistry. The tables of the three celebrated chemists, *Bergman*, *Wenzel*, and *Kirwan*, are at variance; and we are still in a state of great incertitude, respecting which of these tables is most worthy of our confidence. The present paper is not susceptible of abridgment with any advantage.

Remarks on the Operation for the Stone with the Lithotome caché; and on the judgment given by the Academy of Surgery respecting that Operation, in the 3d Vol. of their Memoirs. By M. SABATIER.—The author here details his reasons for preferring the operation with the *Lithotome* (*Bistoury*) *caché*, which he considers as an invention that does honour to human nature.

On the Organ of Vision of the Fish called Cobitis Anableps, or Great Eyes of Cayenne. By M. LACEPÈDE.——This animal inhabits some parts of South America, particularly the environs of Surinam. It is of the same genus as the *cobitis fossilis*, or *living barometer*, which is preserved in vessels full of water as a matter of curiosity, to observe its motions.

Much conjecture is here offered: but it seems to be proved that, if the *anableps has not two eyes on each side*, it has in each eye, two cornea, two cavities for the aqueous humour, two irides, two pupils, and two foci for the luminous rays.

On the Urine of the Horse compared with the Urine of Man; and on several Parts of the Animal Oeconomy. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——M. *Rouelle* formerly announced that the urine of the camel and of the cow contains muriate of potash, sulphate of potash, calcareous earth, volatile salt, and no phosphoric acid. He also asserted, that the urine of the horse did not contain the acid salt which exists in that of the camel and the cow.

The horse's urine turns violet syrup, green;—and it effervesces rapidly with acids. The result of the analysis is that it contains,

1.	Carbonate of lime	0,011	
2.	Carbonate of soda	0,009	
3.	Benzoate of soda	0,024	0,060
4.	Muriate of potash	0,009	
5.	Vegetable and animal matter, of a peculiar kind	0,007	
6.	Water and mucilage	0,940	
		1,000	

Urine of the horse, which has been altered by fermentation, on standing, differs from fresh urine, 1. In not containing carbonate of lime, nor carbonate of soda, nor that singular crystallizable matter which is afforded by nitric acid. 2. In containing acetous acid, and carbonate of ammoniac.

First Memoir on some Anomalies in the Play of Affinities, and particularly those which take place on account of the Change of Temperature, and the separation of Caloric. By M. GUYTON.——This is an interesting paper, but we cannot undertake to abridge it.

Observations on the Sublimation of Mercury, in the Vacuum of the Barometric Tube, produced by the Rays of the Sun. By M. CHARLES MESSIER.——We must also decline any analysis of this memoir.

Memoir on Blue Cloth, dyed in the Wool, and manufactured from the Wool obtained from Sheep of the pure Spanish Breed, kept at Croissy-sur-Seine in 1786. By M. CHANORIER.——Prejudices having existed in France, as well as in England, in favour of wool imported from Spain; and manufacturers being generally of opinion that it was impossible in other parts of Europe to obtain any of equal quality; Dr. Parry * in England, and M. CHANORIER in France, have endeavoured to rectify this injurious misapprehension. The latter procured from Spain the very best specimens of Spanish wool, known by the names of the *Pollard*, *Negrette*, and the *Infantado*; and he exhibited them, mixed with some specimens from his own fleeces, to the manufacturers. His wool, he tells us, was acknowleged to be equal to that which he had procured from Spain; and two manufacturers assured him that cloth manufactured from it is equal to any made from the best Spanish wool. He presented specimens of it to the Institute.

Observations on the Fabrication of the Acetite of Copper, or Verdegrise, Verditer, &c. By M. CHAPTAL.——This paper consists chiefly of minutiæ, which may be interesting to manufacturers, but not to general readers.

Observations on the Yellow Colour extracted from Vegetables. By M. CHAPTAL.——Of the three primitive colours employed in painting, *red*, *yellow*, and *blue*, the yellow is the only one which does not possess sufficient solidity to be regarded as a fixed colour, or good paint. M. CHAPTAL endeavours to shew by what means the matter, which causes yellow substances to afford a dull and dirty colour, may be separated, in order to afford a single and lively colour; and 2dly, how to render that colour as solid and permanent as *red* and *blue*. To effect these purposes, all extraneous matter mixed with the yellow matter is directed to be separated.

* See Review for July last, p. 236.

MATHE-

MATHEMATICAL *and* ASTRONOMICAL MEMOIRS.

On the Secular Equations of the Motions of the Moon, of its Apogee, and of its Nodes. By M. DE LA PLACE.——It is known that, when the famous problem of the three bodies had been solved by *Clairaut*, *D'Alembert*, and *Euler*, these great geometricians applied the solution to the theory of the moon, and made the motion of the lunar perigee less by one half than observations assigned it. For a short time, the truth of the law of gravity varying inversely as the square of the distance was called into doubt; till *Clairaut*, extending the approximation, found that the law of gravity gave the motion of the moon's perigee exactly conformable to observation. The same law of gravity has not only rendered satisfactory the account of the motion of the moon's nodes and perigee, and of the inequalities of variation, erection, and annual equation, but it has indicated several less inequalities not easily to be discovered and ascertained by observation alone:—hence the tables of the moon, before inaccurate, have by calculation received a very considerable degree of precision.

The secular equation of the moon was first remarked by Halley; and Dunthorne and *Mayer* confirmed the observation. By the comparison of a great number of observations, *Delambre* and *Bouvard* have placed beyond doubt this secular motion. The mean motion of the moon has been accelerated since the time of the Chaldeans; which fact is farther confirmed by Arabian observations made in the tenth century, at Cairo, by Ibn Junis. Some time since, it was an object of considerable research with the mathematicians of the Continent, to render a satisfactory explanation of this phænomenon. They first endeavoured to assign its cause from the principle of gravitation: but, finding that the action of the sun and planets, the spheroidal form of the moon, &c. were inadequate to produce the acceleration of the lunar movement, they next inquired whether it might not arise from the action of comets, from the resistance of ether, or from the successive propagation of gravity. At length, M. DE LA PLACE discovered its cause; he found the secular equation of the moon to be due to the action of the sun on the moon, combined with the variation of the excentricity of the earth's orbit.—The explanation of this phænomenon, from the principle of gravity, is the most important confirmation of Newton's theory, since the time of *Clairaut*; and it alone is sufficient to transmit the fame of its author to the latest posterity.

Of the causes before mentioned, and proposed for the explanation of the acceleration of the moon's motion, the successive propagation of gravity appeared to M. DE LA PLACE the most natural; and he undertook the explanation on this principle:

but

but at that time the retardation of the motions of the nodes and apogee had not been ascertained by observation. This retardation, however, has since been determined: the same cause, then, should explain it, which explains the acceleration of the moon's motion: but, if the secular variations produced by the successive transmission of gravity be submitted to the same analysis, it appears that these variations are sensible only in the moon's mean motion, and alter neither the motion of the apogee nor that of the nodes. If the effect of the resistance of ether be calculated, it appears that no sensible equation is produced in the motion of the apogee, only a very small alteration in the excentricity of the orbit; nor any secular equation in the motion of the nodes, but a secular equation in the mean motion proportional to the square of the time.

The conclusion from these considerations is that the secular equation of the moon is not to be attributed to these causes; and since the alterations of the moon's three motions relatively to the sun, to its apogee, and to its nodes, are such as the law of gravity requires them to be, they evidently can have no other cause.—The present memoir of M. De La Place contains the '*analyse epineuse*,' which conducted him to his memorable results on the secular equations of the moon's motion.

On the Means of converting continued Circular Motions into alternate Rectilinear Motions. By M. Prony.—This philosopher remarks that the inventions chiefly used for converting circular into rectilinear motions are subject to the following inconveniencies:

1. They produce only a course of a determinate length; so that, in order to cause the resistance to describe a greater space, it is necessary either to construct another machine, or to add a returning motion; which is always a fault, and sometimes causes great embarrassment.

2. It is impossible, even in subjecting them to a determinate course, to give them an extent beyond certain limits; unless there result such dimensions for the machines, that they either cannot be executed or at least are very difficult to manœuvre.

M. Prony has endeavoured to construct a machine free from these inconveniencies: he has described it, with the aid of plates, in the present memoir; and he says that it is simple, unexpensive in its primitive construction, and that it may be kept in repair with little cost and difficulty.

New Theorem in Geometry, in which are assigned Portions of the Hemispherical Vault, of which the Solidity can be expressed by an Algebraic Formula. By Charles Bossut.—Near the close of the 17th century, *Viviani* proposed to the geometricians of his time, to cut two windows out of an hemispherical vault,

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in such a manner that the remaining part of the surface should be quadrable. The problem was thus solved by the two *Bernouillis*, and by *Leibnitz:* two cylinders, with bases equal to the circles described on the radii of a great circle as diameters, and perpendicular to the plane of such great circle, separate such portions from the spherical surface, that what remains is quadrable, and equal to twice the square described on the radius. This problem was more generally treated by *Euler*; who likewise shewed the method of constructing curves on the plane of a great circle, so that the cylinders insisting on them should cut the sphere in such a manner that the solidity of the remaining part should be expressible in an algebraic form. M. Bossut mentions that no mathematician has noticed that the two cylinders, which are used in the Florentine problem, take away from the sphere such portions, that what remains can be algebraically expressed: according to him, the remainder is equal to two-ninths of the cube of the sphere's diameter. The result is given without the analysis; which, however, we apprehend, it would not be difficult to exhibit.

Result of several Experiments undertaken for the Purpose of ascertaining the Quantity of Work which Men are able to furnish by their daily Labour, according to the different Modes in which their Strength is employed. By M. Coulomb.——This is an ingenious paper, and as satisfactory as can reasonably be expected on so uncertain a subject: but it is interesting, and worthy of consideration; since, as M. Coulomb observes, the human body is the most commodious machine which can be employed in complicated motions, which require nice and continual variations in the degrees of pressure, velocity, and direction.

The quantity of action, according to M. Coulomb, is what results from the pressure which a man exerts, multiplied by the velocity and the time of action; and if, in producing this quantity, the man undergoes each day as much fatigue as he can sustain without deranging his animal œconomy, this degree of action will measure the effect which he can produce in a day;—or, in other words, the weight which he can raise to a certain height during a day. The question to be determined, then, is, how are the different degrees of pressure, velocity, and time, to be combined, so that a man with equal fatigue may perform the greatest quantity of work.

This subject has been discussed by *Desaguliers* and *Daniel Bernouilli:* the latter of whom maintains that the fatigue is always proportional to the quantity of action. This opinion is proved by M. Coulomb, in the course of his memoir, to be erroneous; and he also with propriety animadverts on the experiments

periments made by these two authors, which lasted only a few minutes, when men can exert themselves in a degree which would overpower them in an hour.

The different weights and heights in this memoir are given according to the new system of measures invented by the French. The method of ascertaining the *useful* effect of labour is this: by experiment, it appears that a man ascending a ladder, or flight of steps, without burthen, furnishes a quantity of action equal to 205 kilogrammes raised to the height of a kilometer: when he carries a burthen of 68 kilogrammes, the quantity of action is 109 kilogrammes; therefore 68 kilogrammes diminish the exertion which a man makes without a burthen, by a quantity equal to 96 kilogrammes.

Suppose the quantity of action lost to be proportional to the burthen; let P be any burthen; then $\frac{96}{68} P = 1.41\ P$, the quantity of action lost by means of P: but 205 is the whole quantity of action when P equals o; therefore $205 - 1.41\ P$ is the quantity of action furnished under the burthen P.

Let h be the height to which a man, with the weight P, can ascend in the course of a day; Ph then is the useful effect of his labour, and $(70 + P)h$ is the whole quantity of action furnished by a man whose weight is 70 kilogrammes;

$$\text{hence } (70+h)\,P = 205 - 1.41\,P$$

$$\therefore Ph = \frac{(205 - 1.41\,P)}{70+P}$$

To have the maximum Ph, put the differential of the expression equal o, whence $P = 53$ kilogrammes.

In the conclusion of his memoir, M. Coulomb says:

'I have been principally occupied in determining how much a burthen diminishes the quantity of action furnished by a man in a day. The experiments, which form the basis of this determination, have been regulated by the motions that are most natural and common to men; such as those of walking on a horizontal surface, or ascending steps. It appears to be an evident result that a man, ascending steps without any burthen, furnishes a quantity of action double that of a man loaded with the weight of 68 kilogrammes, nearly the burthen of those who carry faggots: but, since, in this manner of employing human strength, the burthen transported forms the useful labour, it follows that the useful labour of a man ascending with a burthen is only one-fourth of the action furnished by a man ascending unloaded; so that, if an unloaded man mounted a staircase, and, suffering himself to fall, should by some contrivance raise a weight equal to that of his own body, he would do as much work as four men carrying the same weight on their backs. This observation appears to me to be of the greatest importance to direct mechanics in the construction of machines to be moved by men, whose strength it it desirable always to employ in a manner the most advantageous for the useful effect.

'I have next investigated the proportion between the total quantity of action furnished by men ascending steps without burthens, with that produced in ringing a bell, turning a handle, &c.; and I have found that a man who ascended stairs disencumbered could make at least twice as much exertion as in the other modes of employing his strength. The experiments which form the basis for the valuation of the quantity of action used in ringing, turning the handles of machines, &c. have constantly been made in great work shops; and I request those who may be desirous of repeating them, if they have not time to measure the results after many days of continued labour, to observe the workmen in different parts of the day without being noticed by them: since there cannot be too great caution in guarding against the errors of calculating either the velocity, or the duration of effective labour, from an observation of a few minutes.

'The results of all the preceding articles give quantities of action much inferior to those which the generality of authors adopt in calculating the effect of machines: but they are almost all grounded on experiments which have lasted only a few minutes, and were performed by select men. After such experiments, they have made their calculations on the supposition that the time of effective labour consisted of seven or eight hours: but in almost every kind of work, a man may exert, for the space of a few minutes, a quantity of action double or triple his mean exertion; he may even perform labour equal to his whole day's work, in two or three hours.'

M. COULOMB concludes his memoir by remarking that the valuation of the mean strength of men depends considerably on their choice: for instance, he found the mean exertion of grenadiers working in trenches to be one-third greater than that of ordinary soldiers. The food and climate have likewise considerable influence on the average quantity of action.

On the Eclipses of Stars, and especially on that of Aldebaron, observed on the 21st October 1793, *by M. de Churruca, at Porto Rico*; with the consequences which result. By JEROME LALANDE.

On the total Eclipse observed 12th May 1706, *in the Morning.* By the Same.

Observations of the Eclipse of the Sun, 6th Messidor, Year 5, viewed at Paris from the Marine Observatory. By CHARLES MESSIER.

On the great Annular Eclipse observed in 1748. By JEROME LALANDE.

Comet of the 6th Year discovered and observed by M. MESSIER.

These five papers do not admit of either analysis or remark.

from 537.
R. Wood.

We have now gone through this large volume, and have endeavoured to give as full an account of its various contents as it was in our power to insert: but we are aware that we have not been able to pay so much attention to some of them as those of

of our readers, to whom they may be particularly interesting, would have desired. A very considerable number of our pages have been assigned to this article, but still we found our allotment inadequate to admit a satisfactory analysis of every paper.

G.2.

see pages 525, 532, 536, 541.

ART. XIII. *Collection of Engravings from ancient Vases of Greek Workmanship*, discovered in Sepulchres in the Kingdom of the two Sicilies, but chiefly in the Neighbourhood of Naples, during the Course of the Years 1789 and 1790. Now in the Possession of Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON, his Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at the Court of Naples. Vol. III. Published by Mr. *Wm. Tishbein*, Director of the Royal Academy of Painting. Printed at Naples, in Imperial Folio, and sold by Cadell, jun. and Davies, in London. Price 3l. 3s.

As we have already presented our readers with some account of the first and second volumes of this magnificent work *, little opportunity for remark is left to us on the present occasion. We have chiefly to announce that this third volume consists of copies of the paintings found on antient vases; which paintings were always intended to call to mind some particulars of worship, something relative to mythology or history, or some remarkable anecdote. The general subjects of these vases being taken from the history or mythology of the Greeks, there is every reason for concluding that they were manufactured by that people, and not by the Etruscans; and, in the first and second volumes, Sir. W. HAMILTON declared himself to be decidedly of this opinion. To the publication before us, he has prefixed no other introductory remark, than the observation that these drawings will serve to throw great light on many curious and interesting passages in the history of antient Greece.

The plates, 60 in number, are accompanied by explanations from the pen of the Chevalier *Italinski*; which, in some instances, are sufficiently fanciful: but antiquaries, like poets, make great use of their imaginations. As we were turning over this collection, in which are exhibited various specimens of the dresses of Grecian ladies, we were rather surprized that, in this age of whim, more of them had not been copied by our modern belles, than merely the simple Grecian drapery which now prevails.—At the commencement of the volume, are some unexplained plates representing women with head-dresses in the shape of ewers, or vases, with the handle coming down behind, somewhat resembling the form which the modern chignon has been made to assume. In another instance, we observe a head-dress with small wings superadded.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xiv. p. 555. and vol. xxi. p. 535.

In

In the dedication to Lord Leicester, the President of the English Society of Antiquaries, Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON informs us that a fourth volume is preparing, which will complete the undertaking, and will contain the vases discovered in the antient Sepulchres of Sicily; particularly Girgento and Terra Nuova. All the remains of this description, which have been found in that island, bear a near resemblance to those that have been dug up in different parts of the kingdom of Naples: but the drawings on the Sicilian vases are in a much superior and more sublime style.

Mo-y.

ART. XIV. *Histoire de Robert, surnommé Le Brave,* &c. *i. e.* The History of Robert, surnamed the Brave; a posthumous Work of LOUIS ELIZABETH DE LAVERGNE, *Comte* DE TRESSAN, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 259. Dulau and Co. London. 1800.

IT is rather singular that, in the early part of life, a man should direct his attention to the grave and abstruse parts of science, and, towards the close of his days, should renounce the studies and researches of philosophy, in order to explore the regions of romance. Such, however, appears to have been the case with the celebrated Comte DE TRESSAN; who, at the age of 73, employed his time in abridging Amadis de Gaul, in translating Ariosto, and in writing tales of chivalry. The present volume was the last production of his pen, and is designed to shew by what means the high and distinguished rank of knighthood was to be obtained in the age of chivalry, when birth alone constituted no title to that honor. The tale is simple and interesting; the manners and characters of chivalry are well preserved; and the animated pictures, which frequently occur, shew that age had by no means impaired the freshness and vivacity of the author's imagination; though it might occasionally betray him into tedious garrulity, or lead him into an uninteresting minuteness of description.

The work is edited by the Abbé *de Tressan,* a son of the Count, and is dedicated to the late Emperor Paul 1st; whose great glory it was (in the language of the Abbé) 'once more to raise, *with a power inferior only to that of heaven, the sacred standards of those illustrious knights, to whose valour seven ages of glory bear witness;*'—and, '*to possess a heart in which all the virtues of chivalry found a support truly worthy of them*'!!! Perhaps the Abbé might now wish to *revise* this adulatory language.

We shall present a brief specimen of this tale, in the relation of an interesting incident:

'Frequent attempts had been made to unfold the secret cause of the love for retirement which Azelais had always manifested; for her beauty was so great that the thoughts of her occupied the mind, the heart,

heart, and even the curiosity of all those who beheld her. Among a variety of conjectures, they had attributed it chiefly to the concern which she felt for the memory of a youth, who in the flower of his age had fallen in battle, and in so extraordinary a manner as to excite universal attention. He had been educated as a page in the palace of the Comte de Toulouse. His zeal to serve the beautiful Azelais had often been remarked; probably his heart could not resist the power of her charms; though the immense difference of rank, which separated him from her, had never permitted a ray of hope to enter his mind. His wit and numberless pieces of poetry, equal in plaintive tenderness to those with which love inspired the unhappy Sappho, had gained for him some celebrity: but the deep and silent grief, of which he seemed to be the prey, had rendered him still more the object of attention. In vain did his acquaintance attempt to divert his melancholy; and still more vainly did they seek to discover the secret which he kept impenetrable. Drooping daily, like a plant withering under the scorching rays of the Sun, he never appeared to revive till the Comte de Toulouse had resolved on a war with one of his neighbours. The youth then seemed to have no other passion than that of glory; and having obtained a command, he followed the standard of the Count. No sooner did he arrive in the presence of the enemy, than he darted like lightning into the midst of them; he was seen to fall on the first onset; and his men, who flew to his succour and repulsed the enemy, had only the melancholy satisfaction of carrying off his dead body.

'On depositing his remains in the camp, it was discovered that he was habited in armour which was fit only for shew, and was insufficient to protect him. Beneath his too slender breast-plate, were discovered, close to his heart, two plates of gold, suspended by a chain of the same metal. A stroke of a lance had partly separated them; and between them was found a drawing exquisitely designed, representing a solitary spot, and a rock, on which a Cupid had been interweaving flowers to form the letters A and Z; and was holding his *bandeau* over the rest of the name, as if to hide it from view. This emblem, and the youth's eagerness to meet death, recalled to mind a song which he was wont to sing, accompanied by his harp. Curiosity soon exerted all its efforts to penetrate a secret which was now hidden beneath the veil of death. The first letters of that name, which was apparently so dear to the departed youth, called to mind his former attachment to the service of the beautiful Azelais; and it was no longer doubted that, tormented by a hopeless passion, he had purposely sought relief in death.

'This story and these conjectures, being often repeated, at length reached the ears of Azelais. Her pure and innocent heart was a stranger to love; she trembled when she learnt, for the first time, that this passion could produce such melancholy effects; and from this period, her taste for retirement was formed.'

This volume will entertain young readers, while it may contribute to improve them in a knowlege of the French language; and it is recommended by a particularly handsome type, fine paper, and an elegant engraving of the author.

O. Wood.

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